The Nation.

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The Week.

When President Roosevelt last week told the citizens of Augusta, Me., that "this continent"—an obvious slip of the tongue when he meant hemisphere—"is no longer to be regarded as a colonizing ground for any European Power," the sentiment excited only the conventional enthusiasm. Everybody realized that it was the turn of the Monroe Doctrine, and nobody attached any especial importance to the verbal form of the President's remarks—on these well-worn subjects he notoriously says whatever occurs to him at the time. Least of all did anybody for a moment imagine that he had suddenly heard of any particular colonization, or that the "war game" was likely to be the prelude to a serious mobilization. It took an Austrian newspaper, the *Neue Freie Presse*, to make out of the President's platitude an international affront. The Austrian editor apparently believes that the President virtually has served notice on England, France, and Holland to relinquish their ill-gotten colonies, and warns Germany off from South America. This latter view is shared by the rarely well-informed Vienna correspondent of the London *Times*. In England the speech fell as quietly as it did here—beyond the limits of Augusta, Me.—and it will be something of a surprise to the British Foreign Office to learn, by way of Vienna, that Mr. Roosevelt has been "waving his bony fist against England, because the Boer war published to the world the poverty of Great Britain's resources." All this to-do—simply because the President, on his way to Augusta, and wondering what he should give the people, remembered Blaine, and gave them the Monroe Doctrine—suggests that to the various fallacies already registered we should add the telegraphic fallacy. It must be grateful to the indignant shade of Blaine to hear this passing mention of the Doctrine reverberating through the capitals of Europe.

Among the echoes of President Roosevelt's speeches which come from abroad, we note that the *Kreuz-Zeitung* rebukes him for speaking in a tone of "arrogance." This it explains, however, by saying that such haughtiness is a result of "the Puritanical belief in the God-given mission of the United States." So it may be, but we seem to remember a similar confidence expressed of late years by German public men. Bismarck was nothing if not pious, and would never have dared to set about aggrandizing Germany by unscrupulous diplomacy had he not believed that the divine sanction rested upon his labors. The Kaiser himself has pretty steadily assumed, in his public speeches, that he was deep in the counsels of the Almighty. God and the Hohenzollerns together were to be a match for anybody. There is nothing surprising about this. Any great and growing and prosperous country, like Germany or the United States, is tempted to see in mere bigness and success a signal proof of the favor of Heaven. This is not exactly the Scriptural view of the matter; it is not even a view which a sober reading of history will confirm; but it is very human. God on the side of the biggest battalions; right the sure concomitant of might—that has been the implicit belief of every nation that has been exalted unto heaven, as a preliminary to being cast down to Gehenna. "Well," said an unctuous clergyman to Lincoln in the dark days of the civil war, "I am certain that the Lord is on our side." "What bothers me," said the President, "is the question whether we are on the Lord's side."

It is evident that President Roosevelt has made more speeches in his recent tour than he had conned over before he started. His remarks on the Trust question were carefully prepared. Whether reduced to writing or not beforehand, they had been well thought out. Quite different was his talk on the Monroe Doctrine on Labor Day in the town of Proctor, Vt., where he said:

> "Remember that the Monroe Doctrine will be respected as long as we have a first-class, efficient navy, and not very much longer."

This, in face of the fact that the Monroe Doctrine was formulated in the year 1829, and has been respected by every Power on the globe—with the temporary exception of France under Napoleon III. —from that day to this, although we had no such navy as the President describes, and during a large part of the time nothing that could be classed as a navy. Our navy was very near its lowest point relatively to that of Great Britain at the time when President Cleveland sent his Venezuela message to Congress. It is true that we had begun to build a new navy, but it was in no condition to uphold the Monroe Doctrine or any other doctrine that any strong naval Power, which had sufficient coaling stations on this side of the water, might see fit to dispute. Only England and France were thus equipped, and either of them could have annihilated our navy at that time. No Power ever had such provocation to dispute the Monroe Doctrine—if it be conceded that that doctrine was really involved in the Venezuela controversy—as Great Britain then had. It was Heaven's blessing to both countries that she did not dispute it; but how strange it seems, in the light of that event, to read from a successor of President Cleveland that the Monroe Doctrine will be respected only as long as we have a first-class, efficient navy. Have we a first-class, efficient navy now? If we have, why are we building more battle-ships?

The announcement that Gen. Miles is to be permitted to make an "inspection trip" to the Philippines will be received by the friends of that officer as a substantial victory for the commander of the army. Last winter his application to go, with or without his baker's dozen of Cubans and Porto Ricans, to proclaim American justice and right-doing, was rejected by the War Department. Since it was Gen. Miles who helped to bring out the water-cure facts, and who officially stated that the American troops had conducted the war "with undue severity," the Administration and the War Department were not at all anxious to have him indulge his propensity to talk to reporters on conditions in the archipelago. Doubtless their change of front is due to a desire on the part of the War Department to be well rid of Gen. Miles during half of the remaining year of his active service, and perhaps to the belief that the situation in the Philippines is now so peaceful as to render it little likely that Gen. Miles can do any "harm" by his inspection trip. But the necessity for such an inspection will occur to no one. Inspector-General Breckinridge, a most capable officer, Adjutant-General Corbin, Paymaster-General Bates, Quartermaster-Gen. Ludington, and other War Department lights, have had their chance at inspecting—with what result the public knows not. Gen. Breckinridge's doubtless voluminous reports have not been given to the press, and there are no signs that they will be. Gen. Miles's may easily have the same fate. In this connection it is interesting to note the statement of the correspondent of a leading New England daily, who declares that no department in Washington gives out Philippine news or information except that which reflects favorably upon our colonial experiment. Everything unfavorable is carefully hidden from the representatives of the press.

The announcement that the forthcoming report of Prof. J. W. Jenks of Cornell upon industrial and labor conditions in the Philippines will contain an urgent plea for Chinese laborers, will surprise few who have studied the question of the development of the islands. Whether his statement that coolies are absolutely es-

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sential to the industrial development of the archipelago will influence the Administration or Congress, is quite another matter. The discreditable Chinese legislation to which President Roosevelt gave his signature last winter placed the Philippines and our other colonial acquirements under the exclusion laws, despite numerous protests from Americans and Filipinos. But Congress could not find time really to apply itself to the solution of this question, any more than it could give its best thought to the Philippine money problem. It is interesting to note that the Germans, next to ourselves the youngest colonizers, are finding the question of labor in their colonies quite as serious as it is in Rhodesia and elsewhere. Some German writers and newspapers would have forced labor—that is, a "mild slavery"—or, as an alternative, severe taxation of the natives, to be paid in natural products. This seems to be the trend, the world over, whether in Egypt, in South Africa, or under the disgraceful rule of the Congo State. Who can say for certain that the exclusion of the Chinese from the Philippines will not give rise to threats to make the lazy natives work in Anglo-Saxon style?

The first break in President Palma's Cabinet has come, and it is more than usually significant. When Minister Terry of the Department of Agriculture first offered his resignation, press and public in Cuba regarded it as an ominous event, and strong influences were brought to bear upon him to induce him to reconsider his determination. He held the matter under advisement for a few days, but in the end persisted in his purpose to withdraw from the Government. This is a grave symptom of political trouble in the young republic. It shows that Señor Terry has become convinced of the failure of his plans to aid Cuban agriculture, and is disgusted at the way in which the radical and irresponsible elements are getting the upper hand. A man of wealth and high standing himself, his willingness to cast in his lot with that of his friend, Estrada Palma, was rightly thought to argue well for the moderation and stability of the new Government. His peremptory resignation now will naturally, therefore, be taken as an alarming sign. It was so interpreted in advance by the conservative Cuban newspapers.

The following statement was given out by the Department at Washington on Thursday:

"Secretary Shaw recently invited some of the largest national banks in the principal cities to order additional amounts of circulating notes to be printed. National banks are entitled to issue circulation to the full amount of their capital. This aggregate capital is $700,000,000, but the banks have only outstanding $358,000,000. His suggestions have met with very favorable response. It is not his intention that they should issue this additional circulation except in case of actual necessity and emergency, should one arise. With this in view, the banks, which have made arrangements to deposit United States bonds as security for such additional circulation, have sent in their orders, and the Secretary has had all branches of the Treasury service busily engaged in expediting the preparation of the notes, pending a possible emergency."

Coupled with this statement was a rumor circulating in Wall Street to the effect that the Secretary had sent his invitation to the aforesaid banks, which hold large Government deposits, and that it was understood by them as an intimation that, if the suggestion were not complied with to the extent of $100,000,000, the deposits would be withdrawn from the non-assenting banks.

That is idle gossip assuredly. In order to "take out" $100,000,000 of new bank-notes, an equal amount of Government bonds must be deposited in the Treasury. At the market rate, there would be a premium ranging from 5 to 34 per cent. on the purchase, but, in fact, the bonds could not be obtained at all. Not more than $5,000,000 could be collected without raising the premium considerably. Probably the amount that might be secured by purchase, at any premium which would allow a profit on the resulting bank-notes, would be too trivial to bother about. More money can be made with a given amount of bank capital in other ways than can be made by buying bonds and issuing notes thereon. Attempts to force the banks to issue notes without the prospect of gain may be rightfully termed "tinkering the currency." Moreover, this is a species of tinkering that will do no good. If it is the aim of the Secretary to relieve the money market and furnish a new supply of currency for crop-moving purposes, the plan proposed will be a failure. The amount paid out for bonds with which to secure bank-notes might be better used directly for crop-moving purposes. The amount obtainable by the borrowing of bonds and the issuing of notes thereon must in any case be small, and subject to serious delays. It should be the aim of statesmanship to devise a better system—one which shall do its own work, and not need tinkering by Government officials at harvest time, or at any other time.

In substance, the circular issued by the Southern Railway's "voting trustees" to the shareholders amounts to this—that owners of the property are asked to deposit irrevocable proxies for the election of their officers during the next five years. Clearly, this is asking a pretty large concession, and it is incumbent on those who ask it to say what they have to offer in return. When voting power was thus conceded, for a term of years, at the reorganization of the various bankrupt railways, the position was that banking interests, able to put the reorganization through, were willing to undertake it only when assured of maintenance of control until sound conditions were restored. This was a wholly logical position; bankers could hardly be expected to devote their time and energies to the work while confronted daily with the possible passing of the property to a hostile ownership. But the present case is different. The limitations imposed by the trustees themselves have been attained. No one professes that the Southern Railway is not solvent, prosperous, and free from need of further direction by reorganizers. Under such circumstances, a request for another five-year surrender of the right to vote for the managers of their choice might appeal to shareholders in a somewhat different way.

The circular issued by the "voting trustees" gives the reasons which they have to advance. "The events of the last eighteen months in connection with railroad properties," they say, "have revealed the danger to which corporate properties are exposed of the control of their stock being bought up in the market by purchasers not identified with the property or permanently interested in its development and improvement." They add that "negotiations having an important bearing upon the interests of the Southern Railway Company" are now pending, which, it is inferred, might be overturned if control were left in the open market. The reference very plainly is to the roving band of millionaire speculators who, last April, with the help of accommodating banking institutions, managed to snatch control of the Louisville and Nashville system. It is pretty clearly hinted by the Southern Railway trustees that these Wall Street adventurers are still a menace, and that it will not be safe to give them another opportunity. This is an extraordinary situation, but it is a situation which exists, and which provides the only warrant for the request of the trustees. It may be compared to the course of events in the Middle Ages, when small proprietors placed themselves under feudal control of a powerful neighbor baron, as the alternative to perpetual spoliation from wandering robber bands. Whether the shareholders of the Southern and other companies will care to accept this mediæval tenure, remains to be seen. As a principle of general application, we are inclined to doubt it. Are they at all assured that the Wall Street rovers will, within the next five years, be disarmed or dispersed; and if not, will another five-year concession then be asked? Or is the present extension of the voting trust only designed to cover the period during which the Northern Securities suit shall be decided, and the way perhaps paved for a Southern Securities combination?

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Mayor Low's weekly talks to the public are evidently something more than mere academic discussions of current problems. If proof were needed, it is supplied by the instructions given by President Wells of the Tax Board to his deputies, in which he directs them to assess real property in their districts at the full market value. This is one of the methods outlined by the Mayor through which the working capital of the city may be increased. The Constitutional debt limit is 10 per cent. of the taxable valuation of the city, and the addition of more than a billion dollars to this valuation means a large increase in the capacity to borrow, or, in other words, a large increase in the city's capital. It is quite certain that this change will not be carried through without opposition from many property owners. The increase of assessment must, of course, be accompanied by a corresponding decrease in the tax rate. The plan is that tax bills shall not be increased, but taxpayers will not be wanting who will fear that the rate will gradually climb again to the usual figures, while the valuations remain at the newly established level. Despite this, it must be admitted that the Mayor's plan, now to be carried into execution, is only a straightforward compliance with the law, and for this reason at least is desirable and commendable. It is gratifying to note that, in making the change, President Wells is intent upon correcting the evils of unjust, careless, and corrupt valuation. Under the new system the Tax Department, as never before, will need expert assessors who are both honest and capable. Blundering guesses at values can no longer be tolerated.

One effect of the new scheme of valuations will be to place this city squarely in line with the rest of the State in favor of the total abolition of the direct State tax, a change in State finance now almost achieved through the efforts of Gov. Odell. This change has already reached a wide popularity in the rural districts, for the very good reason that it has lifted a vast burden of taxation from the rural counties, which now, instead of paying considerable sums into the State treasury, pay only a trifle and receive back large amounts for the support of their academies and schools and for the improvement of their roads. The change has not, however, attracted so much interest and attention in this city because the burdens of indirect taxation fall heavily here. There has been no active opposition of any consequence to Gov. Odell's programme; it merely has been received with less enthusiasm in this city than in the rural districts. With our property assessments based upon full market values, however, New York city would undoubtedly suffer seriously from a resumption of the direct State tax. Rural assessments range from 40 to 50 per cent. of actual values, and in the spreading of the State tax a wholly unjust proportion would consequently fall upon the city. It is the nature of equalization boards to raise valuations, not to reduce them, and little or no relief could be expected from this source. But with the direct tax out of the way, the city has no such injustice to fear.

When Senator Platt says that the Republican State Convention will adopt a platform containing a very warm endorsement of the Roosevelt Administration, but not declaring for the renomination of the President in 1904, the head of the machine shows his teeth. It is true that there are no precedents in New York for suggesting a second term for a President two years before the meeting of the National Convention, but neither were there such precedents in Kansas, Iowa, Pennsylvania, and other States where Republican conventions have already declared for Mr. Roosevelt's renomination. It is not any regard for tradition which deters the Platt machine from passing a resolution on this subject in line with those adopted in several other States. It is simply the purpose to show the President that he cannot count with assurance upon the delegation from his own State in the National Convention of 1904.

Following the example of Harvard, the University of Pennsylvania rearranges its order of studies so that an ambitious student may attain the bachelor's degree in three years. This is brought about much as it was at Cambridge, by requiring a certain number of courses for the degree, and permitting the student to follow as many in any year as he is able and willing to undertake. By carrying twenty hours of classes a week, the required sixty courses are completed in three years. Furthermore, the University intends to accept the logic of this "unit" system, and let every man achieve his sixty units in his own time—be it three, six, or ten years. Certain practical implications of this change should be noted. The abolishment of "conditions," and the requirement instead that the deficient "unit" or its equivalent shall be made up another year, will greatly simplify college administration, and do away with the most ungrateful part of the professor's task. Finally, the presence of a large number of three-year men (in Harvard they are already a sixth of the whole) practically means the formation of an "honor school," and we shall soon see fully recognized the English distinction between honor men and pass men, which is not quite the American discrimination between "sports" and "grinds." That this innovation will greatly change the traditional leisureliness and solidarity of American college life, no one can doubt. But this life has already pretty well disappeared from the urban colleges.

The sudden application of the Crimes Act to five more Irish counties is difficult to account for. There has been no news which warrants one in believing that there has been any marked increase of crime in Ireland. The Nationalist members had no trouble in showing before Parliament that Ireland was in a condition of considerable tranquillity. The inclusion of the Borough of Dublin in the proclamation can have no other reason than that of regulating and perhaps suppressing the newspapers which represent the new Irish League. In this case the act is plainly used as a means of political, nay, of partisan aggression. To take such a step shortly after the activities of the *agent provocateur* Sheridan had been fully exposed, seems to us a tactical mistake of the first magnitude. No one can doubt that the general application of the Crimes Act is calculated to produce precisely the condition of disorder in view of which it was formulated. Pending an explanation of the bare dispatches, it seems that Mr. Balfour has committed himself to a policy of provocation. Those Unionists who imagine that the political propaganda of the Irish League may best be countered by coercion, may soon have as foolish a look before the country as Lord Rosebery and his fellow Liberal Imperialists, who professed to see in Irish reform an out-worn issue.

The visit of the King of Italy to Germany is somewhat in the way of tardy amends for the Russian excursion of a few weeks ago. It has given the Kaiser a chance to emphasize the importance and vitality of the Triple Alliance—a sentiment to which his royal guest gave only a conventional response. In fact, the immediate political significance of the visit is almost nil. The personal aspects of the meeting are, however, most interesting. We see in conference the two European monarchs who take the royal office most seriously, and who alone have the personal force to make a lasting impression upon the destinies of their people. One would give much if he could for a moment look into the very heart of these two ambitious young men. Does the Kaiser look forward to the peaceful triumphs of German science and industry, or does his mind work upon armies advancing through conquered or ceded territory? Does the King commit himself to the uplifting and education of those confused but mighty forces which are working in regenerated Italy, or has the dream of an Albanian overlordship and a Tripolitan dependency captured his imagination?—these are the questions which every observer of European politics would like to have answered.

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RADICAL MEASURES AND CONSERVATIVE PARTIES.

Attorney-General Knox expressed the opinion last week that Congress would surely act in consequence of the President's speeches regarding the regulation of Trusts. We are not so certain of that ourselves, but we are certain that Congress will be much more likely to act as a result of the bold attitude which Mr. Roosevelt has assumed in the presence of the people. For one thing, he will have done a great deal to crystallize public opinion. His words may not be always wise, or his recommendations happy; but he is setting the country to thinking, and the country's thought takes, in the long run, the form of legislation. But the greatest reason for expecting definite enactments to follow the President's appeals lies in the fact that he, in the act of urging radical measures, is the leader of a conservative party.

As a general rule, it is by the hand of the conservative party—call it Tory, the Right, the Centre, or Republican—that innovating and progressive laws are written upon the statute-book. The advanced party, the agitators, the Liberals, first take up the issue, work for it, alarm the country by their proposals, and lose political power. Then the "saviours of society" come into control of the Government, and proceed quietly to "dish the Whigs" by adopting their measure. It has been so in England in connection with the extension of the franchise, which the Conservatives stoutly withstood, only to go later, under the lead of the cynical Disraeli or the reluctant Salisbury, much further than their opponents had proposed. The capital instance, however, is Irish legislation. Since moving heaven and earth to defeat Mr. Gladstone's "revolutionary projects," the Tories have passed two acts for Ireland more revolutionary, in some respects, than anything Mr. Gladstone ever brought forward, certainly more radical than anything he ever enacted into law. We refer to Lord Salisbury's acts for expropriating Irish landlords and for setting up local government in Ireland. No wonder that the late Sir Charles Russell thought actual home rule would yet be granted by the Conservatives. They would call it by some more sweet-smelling name—"devolution of Imperial powers," or what not; but the *thing* they really may give Ireland, in the end.

There is a great deal of political philosophy and of human nature in this historic law of progress by means of the party that puts on the brakes. So much depends on who says a thing! In politics, as in theology, Pascal's doctrine of "another mouth" has constant application. "Dans une autre bouche," the proposition would have been orthodox; but anything that Arnauld said must be heretical, and so he had to be condemned by the Sorbonne for what a really good Catholic might have uttered with impunity. It is on this principle that Mr. Roosevelt can say with general approval what would awaken general dismay coming from Mr. Bryan's mouth. Such is the nature of political man! Character and reputation count, in these things, for more than mere language. Mr. Bryan had the name of a leveller, and when he talked about legislating against Trusts, people thought he meant an attack on all property, and were willing to give up a part of what they had to the Republican party in order to prevent the destruction of their all. But when Mr. Roosevelt says essentially the same thing, his record, his position, make all the difference in the world. He is a born and bred conservative, therefore there cannot be anything revolutionary in what he proposes. It is by such implicit reasoning that his speeches fall so gently upon an undisturbed public equanimity. "That's so," the very people say who have hardly got over their terror at Bryan. "The Republican President must be right."

It is largely in such ways, we must not forget, that political progress is possible. Through the infection of the conservative party with radical ideas, the English system and the American system show their superiority to the French. "We do not make reforms in France," said a French Senator to Richard Cobden; "we make revolutions." Our way is, fortunately, to peg away at that slow amelioration which we call reform, and not to shake society to its foundations in the hope of setting things right. And one reason we are able to do it is that even our staidest and most inert party cannot for ever remain stationary. When the time comes, it will be found "stealing the clothes of the Whigs." We do not say that Mr. Roosevelt is stealing the clothes of the Democrats, but their preliminary agitation has prepared the ground for his harvest. It is possible for him to do in the guise of a conservative what they never could have done as radicals. This is his advantage. It is the immense advantage which any chief of the conservative party has who adopts an innovating course. He disarms suspicion, and quiets vague alarm, by virtue of his very position. Mr. Gladstone was so keenly sensible of this truth that he besought Lord Salisbury in 1885 to strike hands with the Irish and carry through remedial legislation as a Conservative policy. He knew that he himself would have to dash his strength against rock-like prejudices which would not exist for the Tory leader. And if President Roosevelt shall prove able to secure a more stringent Federal control of corporations, it will be due in a great degree to the fact that he and his party can put their own label upon radical legislation, and make it pass current as the purest example of stable and conservative policy.

TARIFF REVISION AND PROSPERITY.

Congressman Hopkins of Illinois is the latest Republican statesman to maintain that it is out of the question to touch a bad tariff in good times. He said in Washington on Thursday that it would be "suicidal" to think about tariff changes while we are enjoying such "great prosperity." Talk not to him of worn-out duties, of tricky schedules, of rates fixed by the Trusts for the Trusts, of needed readjustments in the interest both of trade and of political morality. All that he could see was a prosperous country, and might his tongue cleave to the roof of his mouth before he would wag it in favor of "disturbing business interests" and "unsettling present conditions" by means of tariff revision.

Mr. Hopkins, it is only fair to remember, has a Senatorial contest on his hands. He has been named by his party convention to succeed Mr. Mason as Senator from Illinois. Now a would-be Senator, it is not invidious to say, is under a certain amount of suspicion when he shows tender consideration for tariff beneficiaries. The Senate is the bounteous dispenser of tariff favors, and their sure bulwark against rash disturbers, whether by means of reciprocity treaty or outright amendment. But it does not necessarily follow that the Illinois Representative, en route to the Senate Chamber, is unconsciously influenced by the air which he expects soon to breathe. He may very well be only one more of the men who catch up the current cry that a movement to revise the tariff would be instantly fatal to American prosperity. It is, however, merely one of those catch-words which serve as an excuse for not giving attention to the real conditions of the problem. A calm examination of them will show, we are convinced, that the plea against tariff revision, on the ground that it will injure business, is essentially hollow and specious. It may deceive the unthinking, or be used as a cloak by the designing, but it has no support in the facts of the case.

To begin with, no one but a tariff lunatic can deny that the real basis of our present prosperity is in our succession of good crops. What was the market anxiously watching all the early summer months? What were foreigners persistently inquiring about? The condition and prospects of our staple agricultural products. As soon as it was known that our corn and wheat and cotton were practically secure for this year, everybody settled down and said, "Well, that means another year of prosperity." What did the London *Times* refer to the other day when it said that "the dice have fallen kindly" again for Americans? Had it heard that Cannon and Grosvenor were opposed to tariff revision, and did it therefore conclude that

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American prosperity was to be uninterrupted? No; it studied the crop reports, and saw that we were to have abundant harvests again, which meant that prosperous conditions were to continue. Had our crops generally failed, of what avail would the tariff have been, revised or unrevised, to assure us prosperity? In much of the foolish talk on this subject we need to listen to the sarcastic warnings of Burke against attributing all good things to the contrivance of man, and allowing nothing for the bounty of Providence.

Passing on to details of the tariff itself, we have, first, some protective duties which confessedly no longer protect. That is, they are practically without any effect on business. How, then, can their removal disturb business? By taking away nothing can you reduce a figure? Next we have such tariff schedules as those on steel products and manufactures of glass. These are the ones to which Speaker Henderson referred, in a letter to an Iowa constituent, as crying out for revision, so grossly abused had they been in sheltering monopoly at the expense of the consumer. But whose prosperity would be impaired by cutting off those iniquitous duties? Not that of the general mass of the people. Yet it is their prosperity which the Republican party professes to be anxious to promote. They would get their steel and glass cheaper, and would not have the rankling sense that they were being taxed for the benefit of odious monopolies. As for the Trust beneficiaries, they might not feel either so prosperous or so secure; but an exclusive prosperity dependent upon special legislation is something which cannot be too soon impaired. We are bidden not to be envious of the prosperity of the wicked, and are assured that, even when they flourish for a time like a green bay tree, they will one day be found cut down and withered; but in this matter of a tariff stuffed with favoritism, we have the axe in our own hands, and the tree will be brought low as soon as the people determine to allow it to flourish artificially no longer.

It is when we put such specific cases as the ones we have mentioned that we see how much sham there is in the Republican unwillingness to injure prosperity by revising the tariff. If there is a log-rolling combine of plunderers who have the party by the throat, and tell it that it must not remove unjust duties on peril of having the whole system upset and the business world convulsed, then, indeed, there is a reason for Republican alarm and helplessness, though it cannot be confessed. But there is no honest reason against such a correction of tariff blunders, and such a revision of tariff inequalities and injustices, as we have suggested. The excuse for doing nothing is really a condemnation for not wanting to do anything.

We may add that this is a subject on which President Roosevelt cannot persist in keeping silent. He must speak to establish his own sincerity. The charge is freely made that his speeches about restraining Trusts are only declamation; that he knows nothing can be done; that his Constitutional amendment will take years to get, if it is ever secured at all. But in cutting away the tariff protection of Trusts, there is something definite that can be done immediately. The Republicans of the West are demanding that it be done. Unless the President is willing to rest under the suspicion that he is talking clap-trap, for political purposes, and that he has not really enlisted for a war against Trusts by every legitimate weapon, he will soon take occasion to say that he agrees with those ardent supporters of his in the West who are clamorous for the removal of the tariff duties that shelter monopoly.

COMPARATIVE STUDY OF LAWS.

No one will deny that it is profitable to compare the laws of different communities. Montesquieu's treatise may be said to be antiquated only in its materials; the method is sound. If there is anything to be gained by experience, or anything to be learned by example, it would seem that legislators were, above other men, in a position to obtain these advantages. Theoretically, they pass their time in deliberating concerning the interests of the people, inquiring into the measures which will best promote those interests, and enacting those measures in the best possible form. In such labors it is obvious that most valuable assistance will be afforded by studying the laws of similar communities; and this must be especially true when there are many coördinate States as similar as those which form our Union.

From the Library of the State of New York regularly issues a summary of the legislation of the past year. The plan adopted is to classify laws according to their subjects, and to obtain from various college professors and public officers reviews of the different classes of laws. A very few examples from the volume for 1901 will show what may be expected from such treatment. Residents of New York have reason to know that city government is a large and complicated subject. The charter of the city makes a good-sized volume, and even those who framed it cannot always tell what it contains. To comment on laws of this size requires space; and to comment successfully on all the laws affecting city government passed in a year in all the States would require a great deal of space. But in this review we find the topic dismissed, rather than discussed, in three pages. It might be possible to enumerate the statutes bearing on city government within such limits, but it is not possible to include a serviceable commentary.

The taxation of mortgages is a matter which has occupied much of the time of Legislatures, but here we find it treated in a sketch of four pages, confined to the situation in Missouri, with illustrations from California. The taxation of corporations is an excessively intricate subject, to comprehend which a vast quantity of matter must be examined. It is allowed eight pages here; half of the space being given to business corporations, and half to public-service corporations. In fact, when we consider that there are but 240 pages in the review, and over forty rubrics, we see that very little could be done in the way of exposition. In several cases what is done is surprisingly well done. In general, however, the criticism amounts to little more than the expression of the opinion of the writer, and the ordinary legislator, we venture to say, will care little for that.

The truth is that "comparative legislation" is one of the most difficult of all sciences, if it can be called a science. It is as intricate as biology, and requires abilities in those who pursue it as great as those of Huxley or Pasteur. We sometimes hear it said that our confederate form of government is very favorable for experiments in legislation. A law may be tried in one State, and the other States can look on, see how it works, and try it also if it seems to work well. But the inference is often very misleading. To see this we need only consider the drink and Sunday laws of the State of New York. The laws which suit certain parts of the State are altogether unsuited to the city, and the attempt to apply them produces the most injurious results. We can see the fallacy of the argument that because a sumptuary law "works well" in a small village in St. Lawrence County, therefore it must work well in the great city of New York. The same fallacy exists in the argument that an experiment in Colorado or California will be conclusive for Alabama or Massachusetts. There are reasons why a law that would answer its purpose in Vermont would not succeed in New Hampshire; and few would contend that a law reported to be effective in Mississippi or Louisiana would be adapted to New Jersey or Connecticut.

Yet in a compilation like this there is a certain amount of miscellaneous information from which we may get some notion of the drift of law-making. Evidently it is strongly paternalistic. There is a continuous multiplication of offices and raising of salaries. New commissions are created, new licenses are required, new taxes are imposed. The only checks to this tendency were in Massachusetts and New York, where a number of commissions were abolished or consolidated. In North Carolina a legacy may reach the legatee shorn of nearly 30

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per cent. of its value; in Washington the rate is nearly as high; in Utah the tax may be practically even heavier.

The disposition to enable the politicians to monopolize the offices is marked. The "non-partisan," which means the bi-partisan, commission, is in much favor. In Kansas and South Dakota independent voting, as well as fusion, is suppressed by laws which allow no person to be voted for except as the candidate of a single party. The labor unions show their political power in the Wisconsin law which allows no private person to conduct an employment agency without paying an annual fee of $500, and the bureaus of the State are prohibited from furnishing lists of unemployed workmen to proprietors of establishments where the workmen have struck. The statute-books are full of needless laws passed under the influence of gusts of feeling. Twenty-four States have passed laws against abduction, some of them of the greatest severity. But, surely, kidnapping was punishable as felonious assault! The student of social conditions may find food for reflection in the reduction of the term of imprisonment for horse-stealing in Arkansas from five years to one. Indeed, there is abundant food for reflection in this review of a year's laws; but it affords an insufficient basis for scientific legislation.

STRIKE INSURANCE IN AUSTRIA.

Two plans for mutual strike insurance are discussed in the *Économiste Français* of August 2. The project of the German company incorporated at Leipzig yields in importance to the more comprehensive scheme under which the Vienna Manufacturers' Strike Insurance Company *(Verein zur Entschädigung von Industriellen in Streikfällen)* is being organized. Accordingly, we shall consider only the Austrian company. It will begin its active existence when it attains a membership of 250 separate establishments, representing an annual pay list of not less than 25,000,000 crowns (roughly $5,000,000), as certified by the Government Bureau of Compulsory Accident Insurance.

At a time when we are adding to actuarial estimates of marine, fire, and death-risks reliable percentages for accident and sickness insurance, it will not seem strange that the strike-risk should also be very closely computed. Official statistics from 1891 to 1897 give for Austria an annual average of 30,000 laborers on strike, and of 400,000 days of idleness on this account. On this basis the annual premiums of the members are fixed at 4-10 of one per cent. of the declared pay list for the year. So far, no minute discrimination of risks is provided for, and a rebate of 25 per cent. of the premium for long contracts or for enterprises in which the strike risk is notoriously slight, is the single concession from the established rate. Only experience will prove or disprove the solidity of these financial provisions.

Meanwhile the plan has many conservative features which inspire confidence in its framers. Neither the Vienna nor the Leipzig company will attempt to indemnify their respective members for the total loss caused by a strike. They propose instead partially to repay the actual disbursements of members during the shut-downs incident to a strike. The Austrian company, for example, pays half the registered wages of the striking workmen to the employer. But it continues the payment for not more than three months for a single strike, or six months in any one year. This, it will be seen, is a recognition of the principle that, whatever the circumstances, nothing should be done to prolong a deadlock between employer and employed—a principle which might find a most salutary application in the case of our present coal strike.

That the Austrian plan may have far-reaching social effects will be felt when it is explained that the indemnity is paid only in case the company judges the strike to be unjustifiable. Its statement of what it considers to be wrong grounds for a strike is of decided interest. First of all, a demand on the part of the laborers for the dismissal or engagement of any workman or employee is regarded as unjust. This is a concrete and unequivocal test, and it is based upon the impregnable argument of the right of labor to seek work freely and of capital to manage its own affairs. But in many cases the moral aspect of a strike is far more difficult to determine. Who shall decide whether the workmen have made "demands which the state of the business does not justify"? or whether their complaint has been made "in a form which threatens the authority of the management"? It is just these questions which arise in nearly every case, and it is the failure to meet these questions squarely and answer them promptly that brings about practically all the trouble. The originality of the Austrian scheme lies largely in the fact that it provides for an authoritative tribunal before which these questions are brought for settlement.

An executive committee of from nine to fifteen members has the duty of reporting promptly upon every strike, and declaring that the insured member is, or is not, entitled to receive the indemnity. At the earliest opportunity a member in whose mill a strike is impendng is bound to give this committee full information on the situation in general, on the demands of the strikers, on the offers of the employers, and, in short, upon all negotiations between the opposed parties. The central committee will ordinarily send a sub-committee to study the situation on the ground, with the intention not only of passing upon the strike, but also of bringing about an agreement between managers and men. When they have finally ordered the strike indemnity to be paid to a member, it means, first, that after careful examination they have found the men to be in the wrong; second, that they have exhausted all measures for conciliation. The moral value of such a verdict, we need not say, will be tremendous in any case; nor need we again indicate how it would have straightened out the tangle into which the coal-strike negotiations immediately fell.

For it should be noted that this committee, though composed of employers, has every motive for impartiality. It can no more afford to deplete the company chest to support a stupid or stubborn member, than it can safely desert a member in his need. If the sympathies of the committee are sure to be with a fellow-manufacturer, its interests are very largely with the strikers, and its tendency will be to push employers to the limits of possible concession. Indeed, a member who has the reputation of a stirrer-up of strife is as undesirable a policy-holder in a strike-insurance company as the amateur of arson is in a fire-insurance company. It would seem that organized labor in Austria could have no just grievance against an organization through which it will gain a permanent arbitration board maintained at the employers' expense, and it is easy to see that a prompt and competent report on all strikes will constitute a palpable check upon the malign activities of demagogues, and those grave injuries which it lies in the sullen power of offended capital to inflict. It is seldom that an economic innovation promises such immediate social benefits. This simple business project seems to offer nearly every advantage claimed for the vaunted conciliation and arbitration boards of the Australasian republics.

A COROLLARY TO NATURE STUDY.

That minute observation of natural facts which Thoreau, W. Hamilton Gibson, John Burroughs, and others have exalted to the position of a cult is every day winning converts, and one may imagine a time when the "How to know" books will be unread, simply because everybody has made the acquaintance of the trees and birds and flowers. Nature-study in the schools is hastening this consummation. Following the admirable German precedent of teaching geography from the direct observation of the child's immediate vicinity, the schools of England and America—particularly the vacation and settlement schools—are pursuing this useful work. A fad in certain of its applications, no one can doubt the salutary effect of any training which makes against the tendency towards homelessness, and seeks as its end intimacy with all that is beau-

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tiful, interesting, and instructive in one's natural surroundings. It is these numberless small associations which, after all, create the sense of home.

But we wish to point out less these obvious advantages of nature study in the schools than to inquire if such study has not possible bearings upon art education. At first blush, one would say, the very slightest, for the minute observation which is taught is, in some ways, foreign to art. The mere assembling of facts—the distinguishing of the kinds of insects, the discrimination of the calls of birds, the understanding of the growth of plants and the structure of flowers—is the smallest part of the artist's equipment. Correspondingly, save as it corrects slothful habits of vision, this various knowledge helps in no way towards the appreciation of a great picture or statue. For nature-study deals with natural facts, and art with natural appearances. The difference will be perceived in a moment if one will compare a book like Mr. John Van Dyke's 'The Desert: a Study in Natural Appearance' with any manual, however skilful, of the plants, birds, animals, or minerals of the marvellous region about the Colorado.

But the incompatibility between nature study and artistic seeing is not complete. Both have the same enemy—lazy and abbreviated habits of vision; both fight the same battle—to intensify the powers of observation. How languid the power of vision is in the average person was implied by Théophile Gautier when he made his proudest boast—"I am a man for whom the visible world exists." He meant that whatever knowledge of the world most people have comes through their fingers, their ears, and their noses, rather than through their eyes; and his paradox was wholly in accord with the most advanced psychology. It would not be too much to say that most people lack completely the power of active vision. They see just enough to identify objects—at most, some single characteristic which serves as brand or label—and they give over the task of seeing any object attentively and as a whole. There is probably a profound philosophy in this grudging use of the sense of sight. That sense is so painfully acquired by each individual—all recognition of dimensions, forms, textures, and distances being the gradual contribution of the other senses to a blurred retinal impression—that it is economized, as the chemist husbands some precious reagent. Then, for every-day purposes, mere identification of the passing object suffices. Only the artist and he who craves the larger enjoyment of the visible world need actually to see.

The Japanese show a sense of what the concentration of artistic vision must be when they refuse to draw from the model, looking fixedly at it instead, and, after it has been removed, drawing from the image in the memory. The contrary of this—a lax, short-hand vision—is the greatest obstacle to artistic appreciation. Nowhere is this more apparent than in the realm of color. It would hardly be an exaggeration to say that the great majority see no color in nature, or rather, that they see only what they think they ought to see, substituting dull formulas in the mind for the lovely tones that lie unperceived before their eyes. Only upon some such theory can we account for the universal acceptance of a dirty pink as "flesh color." Flesh actually, according to the natural complexion and the light and surroundings, will exhibit all the paler tones of the spectrum. So a "grass-green" is all that many of us ever see, whereas grass in sunshine may be brilliant yellow; in shadow or under evening skies, purple—and always is intershot with its complementary hue of red or violet. The mutability of color has been strikingly exemplified in a famous series of haystacks painted, hour by hour, through the day, and in the equally well-known series of Rouen Cathedral from dawn to dark. Whether one wholly agrees with Monet's interpretations or not, no one can dispute his fundamental principle that a haystack or a cathedral is a different object to the trained eye with every caprice of the sun and atmosphere, and that the range of variation is astonishingly great.

The practical question is, Can people generally, and especially children, be taught to eschew formulas and practise this truthfulness of vision? Undoubtedly, in a considerable degree; and the outdoor classes in nature study afford an admirable opportunity for this kind of teaching. It would chiefly be necessary to arouse the child's curiosity by challenging his conventional vision. Ask him the color of pine boles in the forest, and when he answers "Brown," show him that it is one of the lilacs; try him on a beech or a smooth maple, and when he answers "Gray," bid him look and see that the real color is one of the blue purples or violets. In many ways, without sacrificing the regular work in nature-study, children could be taught the art of seeing things as they actually appear. Of course, this presupposes artistic training in the teacher, and only to such as have this capacity is the experiment commended. We may add that Professor Shaler's essay, "Landscape as a Means of Culture," though it deals more with form than with color, would be suggestive to any teacher who wishes to broaden her course in nature study, while that generally impracticable but wholly charming book, Ruskin's 'The Elements of Drawing,' gives some specific directions for ascertaining the natural appearances more eloquently described in 'Modern Painters.'

WANTED: A STYLE FOR THE TIMES

Mr. Walter H. Page, who has been successively editor of the *Forum* and of the *Atlantic Monthly*, and now edits the *World's Work*, writes in some bitterness of spirit in reply to the question, Why are the magazines not better? "I should be the last man in the world to call even the best magazines good. I have had my hand in making—I should not undertake to say how many—but I have never made one and I have never seen one made that was more than a pile of débris. The reason that you have rubbish in the magazines is because the editors cannot get anything better." This, or something like this, has always been the editorial cry. Mediocrity in the contributor has always been the rule, talent the exception. And if the editor of the *World's Work* merely wished to show that no magazine is quite worth the pain of its parturition, we might immediately relegate his words to the category of indiscreet confessions. It is not because Mr. Page is convinced that something ails the modern magazine—that is a very general belief—but because he tells definitely what, in his opinion, ails it, that his article will command the attention of the thoughtful.

He regrets that "the intellectual class" to which magazine contributors belong, does not write in an interesting way. The contributors who have some superficial grace of style lack ideas; those who have ideas lack style. There is an almost universal inability to write for the reading public of the beginning of the twentieth century, which is apparently a far more difficult public than any of older times. The voice and the style that can arrest it have not yet been discovered. Says Mr. Page:

> "The truth is, our style must become better. We do most things better than we write. Effective style is changing. The somewhat leisurely style of a generation or two ago pleased the small circle of readers within its reach—a mere little company which by comparison might have been got into one room, a company who had leisure and who liked to read that kind of writing. Now the great world is forging forward in all its departments of thought as in all its industrial development, and style suited to our time is different. The man who would write convincingly or entertainingly of things of our day and our time must write with more directness, with more clearness, with greater nervous force; and the teaching of composition and the practice of style have not kept pace with the development of our intellectual life in the United States."

Here, then, is the case squarely put. We must achieve a style nervous, emphatic, and insistent enough to catch and hold the man of to-day. But before we commit ourselves to this theory that the magazine style must be violently popularized, it may be well to recall a few masters of that "leisurely style" which Mr. Page feels we have so completely outgrown.

At the opening of the last century and thereabouts the best of the "leisurely" journalists were Hazlitt and De Quincey; a little later Macaulay and Leigh Hunt

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continued the tradition; then Thomas Carlyle and Thackeray made their way through the magazines; Walter Bagehot and Matthew Arnold and J. R. Green did their turn in journalism; and to-day John Morley and Leslie Stephen, though unpossessed of the new style, manage to get a hearing. Now the implication that there was or is anything esoteric about these men, that writing to-day their too leisurely style would be found lagging behind our recent intellectual development—requires no very serious discussion. The writer who wished to reach our public would do much better, we believe, to study the "leisurely style" than to strive for that "nervous" quality which the modern magazine reader is supposed to require.

As a matter of fact, the desiderated style for the times has had a pretty thorough trial. The late G. W. Steevens certainly wrote it; Mr. Kipling writes it and produces six distinct electrical discharges in the space in which the leisurely writer would grudge himself one; Mr. Maurice Hewlett, although he is still caviare to the general, has all the nervousness and picturesqueness that any editor could desire; and Mr. J. P. Mowbray fairly flings his bawble into the face of the expectant public. But these examples of the modern style hardly encourage us to believe that progress lies that way. It seems to us, in short, that Mr. Page's conception of a deliberate attack upon the larger reading public, of a general attempt to measure up, or down, to the standards of those who, at bottom, have learned to read only between pictures; is fundamentally erroneous. We do not believe that the style which the great untrained public wants is a good style. The fact is that, while the "intellectual contributor" is often a dull person, the writers of to-day are less at fault than the public. It is the public that needs to be converted to intellectual leisureliness; not the writer who needs to catch the fever of modern life.

It is a very natural and in an editor a very amiable illusion—that of imagining the scramble for money and place and distraction to be more intellectual than it is. It is easy to mistake a certain progress in accustomed ruts for that untrammelled flight of the mind which is the condition of literary production and appreciation. Mr. Page is too modest in feeling that the failure to interest people who have little capacity for the pleasures of the mind is criminal. The newspapers and magazines that cater to listless intelligences, languid tastes, and roving attentions—it is these that have already discovered the style for the times which Mr. Page ingenuously desires. Should they be praised for the discovery?

We have fallen upon dull times for editors. The "intellectual class" probably writes less interestingly than it did, say, from 1800 to 1870. If any one wishes to appreciate the full seriousness of the case against the "intellectual contributor," let him read thoughtfully 'Literary Boston of To-day'—a book which, by a sheer coincidence, but a felicitous one, appears within a week of Mr. Page's protest against the dull and the literary. Before, however, he despairs utterly of the intellectual class, and undertakes the desperate attempt to contrive a style for the times, we advise Mr. Page, and the more philosophical editors generally, to take counsel of this wise saying, which may be found in the current *World's Work:* "It is a delusion to conclude that, because an idle man reads a silly book, he would read a good book if he didn't have the silly one. That kind of man will never read a good book." With the single change of "article" for "book," this covers the case. One should not go too far with this kind of reader. We are bound to write for him who runs, but we are not bound to make his haste our own.

AUTHORITY IN LANGUAGE.

In April last the French Academy admitted to its Dictionary the word *chic*, without hesitation for the meaning 'improvisation of the artist who works without a model,' but only after much discussion for the sense 'taste of the day,' 'caprice of fashion.' If some critics would have barred out the word altogether, others complained that recognition came tardily. *Chic* (to which Littré was hospitable long ago, and which Sanders embraced in his 'Verdeutschungswörterbuch' in 1884) was, said M. Émile Faguet, slang of the clerks of the Parlement of Paris in the seventeenth century, with a relation to *chicane*, but when it reappeared in the second third of the nineteenth century, it had in the ateliers a quite different signification, and gained general acceptance as 'stylish' still later, between 1850 and 1860. Now, it is almost quite superseded by stranger forms—*pschutt, v'lan, urf, bath, chouette, dans le train* (in the swim), *dernier bateau*, and our English *smart*. All admit, however, that the Academy is exercising its proper function in fixing the limits of the allowable in correct French.

This function was invaded, in a way, in 1890, by M. Georges Leygues, Minister of Public Instruction, who was not uninfluenced by the agitation carried on during the previous three years by the Society for Spelling Reform. In a decree issued on the proposal of the Superior Council of Public Instruction, and dated July 31, 1900, he prescribed a number of licenses, both in spelling and in syntax, which examiners should tolerate in rating for certificates—for example, in the pluralizing of certain adjectives and compound nouns, in hyphenation, in the regimen of the past participle, in the use of unsupported *ne* after certain comparative expressions, etc., in the placing of adjectives before or after the noun—matters in which there is considerable doubt and inconsistency in the prevailing usage. The storm of protest which this decree evoked led M. Leygues (who, the wits declared, should begin by simplifying his own name to Lègue) to take advice of the Academy, which reported, through M. Hanotaux, against all the substantial changes proposed. M. Leygues, in a new decree, dated February 26, 1901, repudiated any intention of attacking the purity of the language or the work of grammarians, and drew a line (surely futile in practice) between strictness of teaching and strictness of examination.

The subject has just been reviewed, in a *Beilage* to the *Programm* of the Mülhausen Gymnasium, by Joseph Lebierre, who is engaged upon an extensive work showing the transformation and deformation of the French language during the past century. He marshals, rather obscurely because of poor typography, the arguments of the reformers and of the purists, who are not unevenly matched in learning and reputation. When Arsène Darmesteter pronounces French orthography the most incoherent and complicated of modern spellings, except the English, Brunetière points to the unrivalled expansion of English throughout the globe notwithstanding, while Bréal, far from wishing to write *farmacie* for *pharmacie, fisique* for *physique*, or to translate (as the new Germans have done under imperial guidance) such terms as *telephone* ("far-speaker"), advocates the greatest possible similarity in scientific and technical terms, for the sake of European solidarity. Other writers answer the solicitude of the reformers in behalf of foreigners as well as of school-children, by denying that there would be any real increase in facility of acquisition, whereas foreigners already in possession of the tongue would be compelled to unlearn and study anew. Would an Englishman be helped to recognize *juger* as meaning "judge" if it were spelt *jujer*, as is proposed, or *pijon* for *pigeon?* It may be set down for certain that any general disfigurement of the present orthography would separate French from English, which has taken over so much from the French; and that such typical changes as *atension* for *attention* or *aprendre* for *apprendre*, would serve to make English more a Latin tongue in appearance than French itself.

The battle has raged hottest, perhaps, over the proposed uniformity in the past participle of active verbs, instead of the actual concordance with the preceding object. Because the regimen of *coûté* is quite without rule, and because the past participle generally is conventionally constant or changeable in form, there is a desire to cut the knot at once by making this participle invariable. When, however, it is used adjectivally, a difficulty immediately arises, for it is justly contended that gender neglected in the participle would tend to become neglected in the adjective, and the language would approach English in the absence of inflection. English influence, it may be, is already making the post-position of the adjective less rigorous than formerly, but the other revolution would be far more sweeping.

At this point the poets take a hand in the controversy, and make an anxious plea for the integrity of the mute *e* of the feminine termination. Without this letter, reported M. Hanotaux, harmony and rhythm would perish from French verse; and Larroumet declares that it is "a rare and precious resource of classical prosody, from which the sixteenth-century poets de-

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rived incomparable effects of tenderness, elegance, and dreamy melancholy"—citing a famous couplet from "Phèdre," with a *blessée-laissée* rhyme. Lacking the prolongation of the *e* mute, the verse becomes, he says, "hard and dry"; and he is sustained in this by Legouvé. A writer in the *Temps* claims the mute *e* as a peculiar musical property of the French language, and adds (but this is extremely doubtful) that "foreign poets envy us on account of it." Nevertheless, the strength of the position lies in the fact that the abolition of the mute *e* along with other silent letters would be the annihilation of a *shading;* of which poetry must ever be jealous. The *Journal des Débats* rightly remarked that if the new decree were carried to the logical conclusion of the reformers, "every mode of speaking and writing responsive to a shade of thought—perhaps a very subtle shade—would be construed as indicating a reactionary state of mind." It is in this light that must be interpreted a comment of the *Temps*, apropos of the "historic" argument for spelling *frapper* "fraper," or *femme* "fame": "To put the history of the language against the rules of grammarians founded in reason is to put barbarism against culture."

The dispute is not without interest for the English-speaking world. Pure phonetic reform in spelling finds no adherents of any consequence in France. The *visuels*, who regard the physiognomy of words, greatly outnumber the *auditifs*, who rely upon the sound. All the leading reformers want is a gradual change, bit by bit; and in the land of centralization they naturally turn to the Academy or to the Government for the necessary authority—as in Germany reformers turn to the Government alone—as in the United States they turn to the Government after having failed to make any serious impression on authors or master printers. It is only a little while ago that it was sought in Congress to pass a bill imposing the American Philological Association's list of changes on the Government Printing-Office; and there is no telling when the measure may be brought up again. Only the other day we ourselves were offered a communication recommending that, having the opportunity to fashion the unfortunate Filipinos in our own image, we should teach their helpless children an English orthography which does not exist except in the above association's pious wish and the actual practice (more or less timid and partial) of its followers, largely librarians who shuffle off two letters from *catalogue*. All this is of paltry worth beside the freedom which is the real genius of the English language, which enriches it from all tongues, naturalizes at once what it borrows, asks no other authority for what is correct spelling or syntax than the best usage, makes the historical Dictionary like the Oxford the mirror and monument of a splendid linguistic development—the record of countless experiments, successes, failures,

> "Revivals, too, of unexpected change";

and has no fear that the purity of the English tongue or the peculiar quality of English verse can sustain any lasting injury from the spirit of innovation like that surveyed by M. Lebierre in France for the past thirty-five years, and ever at work among ourselves.

Correspondence.

REPRESENTATIVES OF THE SOUTH IN CONGRESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Such a criticism of the fisticuffs of Southern politicians as appeared in the current *Nation* is not only merited, but sadly true. Perhaps it is explainable by the fact that the leading men of the South take not the interest in politics that they formerly did. Such a corner-grocery element has entered Southern politics that not very many gentlemen enter it; hence the absence of Calhouns, Clays, Madisons, Stephenses, Benjamins, Hamptons, Ben Hills, and the like in Congress. Jeff. Davis of Arkansas surely is not a type of the gentleman of the South of to-day. He is merely a specimen of the low grade to which Southern politics has now fallen. There are very few of us down South who admire either "Red Shirt" Tillman or Imperialist McLaurin. Senator Bailey, also, has lost many friends by his pugilistic encounter with Beveridge.

Northerners may be assured that all Southerners hate to see such encounters as have taken place recently. Also, let them know that the South is trying to reform, and hopes, in the near future, to send more men like Congressman John S. Williams of Mississippi to represent her at Washington.—Sincerely,

William Kernan Dart.

Bay St. Louis, Miss., August 20, 1902.

THE ART OF UNLOADING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article entitled as above, in the *Nation* of August 21, seems to me worth to any thinking man the cost of a year's subscription, and, perhaps, of a whole lifetime of such subscription to some. The article has an economic as well as intellectual value, because at no former time have such gigantic efforts been made to inject vast amounts of worthless "water" into the country's securities, in the hope of thereby transferring the public savings into the pockets of a few tricky schemers.

Of course, it is chiefly the credulous and inexperienced, who still believe that their own especial genius can get something for nothing, that fall into these traps. But the public press professes to lead and teach the people, and, though the nets are shamelessly spread in sight of the game, scarcely a journal in the country has hitherto dared to expose the frauds with which their advertising columns are more or less filled. And yet the safety and happiness of countless families are endangered by every considerable amount of incorporated "water" which the promoters succeed in unloading upon unsuspecting industry.

Your theme is so timely, so well treated, and likely to benefit so many that I hope you will give us more of it, even "line upon line, and precept upon precept."

Yours respectfully, W.

Philadelphia, August 27, 1902.

THE ARRANGEMENT OF PHOTOGRAPHS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have recently been making an effort to arrange a collection of some thousands of photographs of historical works of art, so as to be able to refer to them easily. My experience may be of interest to some of your readers. The first decision I had to make was as to division into sizes. One buys photographs of all sizes, but cannot arrange all together. The bulk of the collection must be small. After many experiments I fixed on the maximum size for the mounts of small photographs as a shade under 14½ inches by 10¾ inches—a little larger than music. I then had a number of "pamphlet cases" made by an American firm in London, the Library Bureau. The internal measurements of these cases are 14½ by 10¾ by 3 inches. The cases externally are mere rectangular parallelopipeds, with no roundings or additions of any kind except the labels I stick on. They are made of strong mill-board and covered in cloth. They are quite cheap. All photographs too large for these boxes are of a size that should lie flat in some kind of portfolio. Most working photographs will enter the boxes, though sometimes with very little margin. Personally I don't trouble to mount my photographs as a rule, they pack so much closer unmounted. I keep them strictly for use, and I write on their backs all the notes I want; but if I had time, I should mount them all on very *thin* cards, and write on the margins and backs of those. I have a number of thin covers of stout paper cut to fit the boxes, and I group the photographs in these covers—one to an artist, or to a school, or to one period of a single artist, according to the number of photographs to be dealt with. I write on the outside of the cover any notes I want about the artist or school in question. The boxes stand on shelves on their longer edges, the shelves being 15½ inches deep and 11½ inches apart. Thousands of photographs can thus be stacked in a small space. I am sorry now that I ever bought any large photographs, and am half inclined to cut most of them in half and hinge the halves together. The arrangement of the groups of photographs within the boxes is, of course, strictly chronological; architecture, sculpture, and all the arts of one period being boxed together. Martin Conway.

London, August, 1902.

Notes.

John Morley's Life of Gladstone easily leads in interest the autumn announcements of Macmillan Co., in which Lives of Miss Yonge, by Christabel R. Coleridge, and of Sir George Grove, by C. L. Graves, are also to be found, side by side with Edward Everett Hale's 'Memories of a Hundred Years.' Further items are 'Essays, Historical and Literary,' by the late John Fiske; 'The Loyalists in the American Revolution,' by Claude Halstead Van Tyne; the fourth and concluding volume of Edward McCrady's 'History of South Carolina,' with Marion and Greene for the chief figures; 'Historical Lectures,' by the late Lord Acton; 'History: Suggestions as to its Study and Teaching,' by Prof. Lucy Maynard Salmon; 'Cecilia, the Last of the Vestals,' by F. Marion Crawford; 'Kottō: Some Japanese Curios, with Sundry Cobwebs,' by Lafcadio Hearn; 'The Splendid Idle Forties: Stories

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of Old California,' by Gertrude Atherton; 'A Joyous Journey round Rügen,' by the author of 'Elizabeth and her German Garden'; 'How to Sing,' by Lilli Lehman-Kalisch; 'Sun-Dials and Roses of Yesterday,' by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle; 'English Pleasure Gardens,' by Rose Standish Nichols; 'Quebec: The Place and the People,' by Sir Gilbert Parker; 'New England and its Neighbors,' photographically illustrated by Clifton Johnson; 'Ancient Athens,' by Prof. Ernest A. Gardner; 'The Holy Land,' by John Kelman, with illustrations by John Fulleylove; 'Egypt,' painted and described by R. Talbot Kelly; 'Italy,' by Prof. W. Deecke; 'Stories in Stone from the Roman Forum,' by Mrs. Isabel Dorsey; 'Greater Russia,' by Wirt Gerrare; 'China and the Chinese,' by Prof. Herbert A. Giles; 'Around the World through Japan,' by William Del Mar; 'The Island of Formosa,' by James W. Davidson, U. S. Consul; 'London in the 18th Century,' by the late Walter Besant; 'London Highways and Byways,' by Mrs. E. T. Cook; 'The Roll-Call of Westminster Abbey,' by Mrs. E. T. Murray-Smith; 'The Scott Country,' by Wm. S. Crockett; 'The Boys' Iliad,' by Walter C. Perry; 'Furniture of Olden Times,' by Frances C. Morse; 'The Art of Walter Crane,' by P. G. Konody; 'Sir Joshua Reynolds,' by Lord Ronald Sutherland Gower; 'Nineteenth-Century Art and Scottish Historical Antiquities,' in two volumes; 'Frans Hals,' by the Rev. G. S. Davies; 'French Engravers and Draughtsmen in the 13th Century,' by Lady Dilke; a new play by Stephen Phillips, 'David and Bathsheba'; a prose work by Alfred Austin, 'Haunts of Ancient Peace'; 'An Illustrated History of English Literature,' by Dr. Richard Garnett and Edmund Gosse; 'A Lexicon to the Poetical Works of John Milton,' by Laura A. Lockwood; 'Shakspere's Moral System,' by Prof. Richard G. Moulton; 'A Guide to Fiction,' by E. A. Baker; 'Plain Facts about the Trusts and the Tariff,' by George L. Bolen; 'Democracy and the Organization of Political Parties,' from the French of M. Ostrogorski; 'The Strength of the People: A Study in Social Economics,' by Mrs. Bernard Bosanquet; 'The New Empire,' by Brooks Adams; 'The Government of Ohio,' by Prof. W. H. Siebert—of New York,. by Prof. Wm. C. Morey—of Maine, by Prof. Wm. MacDonald—of Michigan, by Webster Cook; 'Theory and Practice in Boys' Self-Governing Clubs,' by Winifred Buck; 'Essays in Heredity,' by Prof. Karl Pearson; 'Dante and the Animal Kingdom,' by Richard Thayer Holbrook; 'Development and Evolution,' by Prof. J. Mark Baldwin; and the 'Diamond Mines of South Africa,' by Gardner F. Williams.

From McClure, Phillips & Co. will proceed 'Dante and his Time,' by Karl Federn; 'The Letters of Daniel Webster,' edited by C. H. Van Tyne; 'Hogarth,' by Austin Dobson; 'Jeanne d'Arc,' by T. Douglas Murray; 'Maxim Gorky: His Life and Writings,' by Dr. E. J. Dillon; Tolstoy's 'Anna Karenin' and 'Ivan Ilyitch,' translated by Mrs. Garnett; 'Mutual Aid, a Factor in Evolution,' by Prince Kropotkin; and 'Astronomy for Everybody,' by Prof. Simon Newcomb.

Messrs. Scribner announce 'The Incarnation of the Lord,' by Dr. Charles A. Briggs; 'All the Russias,' by Henry Norman; 'King Mombo,' a book for young people, by Paul Du Chaillu; and a new edition of the late Clarence King's 'Mountaineering in the Sierra Nevada.'

Bishop Potter's 'The East of To-day and To-morrow' will be brought out by the Century Co., as will likewise a volume on 'Title-Pages,' by Theodore L. De Vinne, and 'Luncheons: A Cook's Picture-Book,' by Mary Ronald.

An English version of Bémont and Monod's 'Middle Ages in Europe, 395 to 1270,' under the editorship of Prof. George B. Adams, is in the press of Henry Holt & Co.

Doubleday, Page & Co. will issue 'Nature and the Camera,' by A. Radclyffe Dugmore, and Kipling's 'Just So Stories,' illustrated by himself.

From the list of Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. we take a 'Guide-Book to Hygienic Diet,' from the vegetarian point of view, by Sidney H. Beard; 'Economics of Forestry,' by Bernhard E. Fernow; 'Irrigation in the United States,' by Frederick Haynes Newell; 'Parables from Nature,' by Mrs. Alfred Gatty; 'Thoreau: His Home, Friends, and Books,' by Annie Russell Marble; 'Robert Browning,' by Stopford A. Brooke; and 'Rustic Life in France,' from the French of André Theuriet, by Helen B. Dole.

Lives of Mozart and of Brahms will be added by E. P. Dutton & Co. to their "Master Musicians" series.

Elder & Shepard, San Francisco, are to publish 'The Romance of the Commonplace,' by Gelett Burgess.

Newnes's thin-paper editions of English classics, shaped for the pocket and the not too muscular hand, and bound tastefully in limp covers (Scribners), are extended by a volume of Shelley's Poems and another of Bacon's Essays and 'Advancement of Learning,' etc., while Irving's 'Sketch-Book' is allotted two in the analogous "Caxton Series" from the same house; but here the paper is of ordinary thickness and can be much more rudely handled. All have portrait or other frontispieces of excellent quality.

Messrs. Scribner are also the American agents for the thirteenth revised edition of Baedeker's 'London and its Environs.' The mapping and planning is most abundant and convenient, and the volume, which opens with a railway map of England and Wales, closes with a select index of streets and plans of the metropolis.

There is one career open to talents in England which has no parallel in this country. We have produced more statutes than all other nations put together, but we have produced no professional draftsmen. Every legislator may draw his own bill, or present a draft furnished him by the attorney of some constituent. No doubt much labor is expended in committee by good lawyers, but it is generally unsystematic. Hence, a new edition of Lord Thring's 'Practical Legislation' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) will probably not have so many readers here as we could wish. It was originally written to instruct the assistant draftsmen in the office of the Parliamentary counsel in "the composition and language of acts of Parliament and business documents," and appears to have received no alteration in this edition. The subject is certainly the driest conceivable, but the author relieves it with some illustrations of what statutes may be when not properly constructed. Thus, a certain act provided that its penalties were to be given half to the informer and half to the poor of the parish; but the only penalty imposed was transportation for fourteen years. Another statute contained the definition, "The term *new building* means any building pulled or burnt down to or within ten feet of the surface of the adjoining ground." An amendment proposed by a Queen's counsel ran as follows: "Every dog found trespassing on inclosed land unaccompanied by the registered owner of such dog or other person who shall on being asked, give his true name and address, may be then and there destroyed by such occupier or by his orders." But the book consists, in the main, of graver matter than this. It is systematic and logical in the highest degree.

The appearance of a second edition of M. Auguste Arnauné's 'La Monnaie, le Crédit et le Change' (Paris: Félix Alcan) tempts one to dwell on the complete collapse of bimetallism within the last few years. The first edition of this book appeared in 1894, and it then seemed as if bimetallism would carry everything before it. We all know how it was in this country, and in England the situation was almost as bad. Nearly all the professors of economics taught the necessity of restoring silver; Mr. Balfour joined the Bimetallic League; the Manchester Chamber of Commerce was converted. Never did an agitation more quickly subside; never was a theory more completely exploded. All the predictions of the bimetallists have been falsified. Gold has become almost universally the standard, and prices have almost universally risen. This book suggests these reflections because of its clear statement of the arguments concerning the standards, and of the monetary situation throughout the world. Controversy has now stiffened into history, but M. Arnauné's work has lost none of its value. It contains as good a description of money, its varieties, and its uses, as is to be found. The processes of exchange, of circulation, of credit, are all admirably explained. Especially satisfactory are the detailed accounts of the monetary systems of France, of England, of Germany, of the United States, and of Indo-China. The "Latin Union," of course, receives due attention. Were it not for the great number of books on the subjects here treated, we should be inclined to ask that this one might be translated; but it is written so clearly as to be easily read in the original.

Some idea of the rapid advance of socialism in France may be obtained from M. A. Lavy's 'L'Oeuvre de Millerand, un Ministre Socialiste' (Paris: Georges Bellais). The chief aim of the book is to glorify M. Millerand's achievements, and his speeches are certainly very able; but to American readers the extent to which the French Government has undertaken to regulate industry is the feature of interest. Much of what is called "amelioration of the conditions of life" consists in raising the salaries and shortening the hours of Government employees—of course, at the expense of the subjects. But the policy of compulsory insurance, of invalid and old-age pensions, of fixing hours of labor for men as well as for women and children, and of fostering the trades-unions, is very fully illustrated. No new arguments for this policy are advanced, but it is impossible not to be impressed with the autocratic powers of a French Minister of Commerce. The prefects are his agents, and he can assert his

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will effectively at the same instant in every Department in France.

'Uhde,' by Fritz von Ostini, is the latest addition to the convenient "Künstler-Monographien" (Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). This painter has been so much abused and praised for his practice of rendering Biblical scenes in the form of lowly German life of to-day that his more genuinely artistic qualities have been generally ignored or misunderstood. Typical of Ostini's criticism is the passage in which, commenting upon Von Uhde's neglect of portraiture, he discusses the present condition of that art in Germany: "Germany is not yet ready for portraiture conceived in any painter-like fashion, and if to-day a Franz Hals should appear among us, he would probably be without commissions. Our Philistines wish to be taken impressively, nay, monumentally; they do not wish their living likeness, but a partial and idealized representation of their personality. For this reason the best portraits among us are generally those which our painters do of each other casually and as a free act of friendship."

The appropriate costume for contemporary portrait statues can hardly be said to be of theoretical interest only. If comparatively few are in a position to give directions to the sculptor for work to be executed, the number of those feeling the need of a correct standard of judgment in the matter is certainly great. We, therefore, call attention to Professor Hugo Blümner's article on "Tracht und Nacktheit in der Portraitbildnerei," in the current number of *Monatsberichte über Kunstwissenschaft*, as a helpful, clarifying discussion of this rather puzzling question. Bringing the experience derived from the history of classical, Renaissance, and modern art to bear on such important recent productions as Lederer's "Roland-Bismarck," Klinger's "Zeus-Beethoven," and Tuaillon's "Unser Fritz" in Roman armor, the writer arrives at the conclusion that truth to life and direct response to the popular conception of the character represented are the desiderata for a public monument.

Under the caption of "Architectural Refinements in Italian Churches," Mr. William H. Goodyear sums up, in the *American Journal of Archæology* (No. 2 of the sixth volume), the investigations pursued in the summer of 1901 on behalf of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences. These investigations were in confirmation of a previous set made in 1895, and these, in turn, grew out of Mr. Goodyear's pioneer work in 1870. They have, as is well known to readers of our architectural reviews and to many lecture audiences, revealed an unsuspected extension of intentioned curves, obliquities, and asymmetrical dispositions first remarked in the classic temples of Greece, but which Mr. Goodyear has demonstrated all the way from Egypt to the Maison Carrée at Nismes, via the Italian peninsula in particular. He is able, in the present paper, to append the certificates of the engineering architects in charge of St. Mark's at Venice and the Cathedral at Pisa in justification of his measurements and deductions. Pen tracings from photographs show clearly the horizontal curves in plan in the twelfth-century cloister of the Celestines at Bologna and in the cloister of S. Zeno at Verona; the vertical curves in the pilasters of chapel walls of the Cathedral of Vicenza; the buttressed *outward*-leaning walls of S. Agostino at Orvieto, and aisle-walls of S. Ambrogio and S. Eustorgio at Milan, and façades of the Cathedral of Pisa, of S. Michele at Pavia, and of S. Ambrogio at Genoa. But we must refer our readers to the article for these and other interesting details.

Though the serial publication called *American Art in Bronze and Iron* (New York, 556 West 27th Street) is frankly an advertisement of the work of a particular foundry, still, as the patronage notably proceeds from architects, decorators, and sculptors, the comparative exhibit is of real interest and value. The first number is given up to Tablets, including seals. Gen. McClellan, Professor Sylvester, Grace A. Oliver, Abby Hopper Gibbons, William Hamilton Gibson are among the better known persons commemorated in this manner.

The *Geographical Journal* for August opens with a paper on snow-waves and snow-drifts in Canada, by Dr. Vaughan Cornish. The most curious formations described are the snow-mushrooms on the tree-stumps in the Selkirks. A photograph is given of one which was nine feet in diameter. Of greater popular interest is Mr. Ellsworth Huntington's account of his descent of the great cañon of the Euphrates in the Taurus Mountains, he being the first after the famous Von Moltke to accomplish the feat. The voyage was made on a kellek, a light frame of saplings fastened together with ropes, under which were tied some thirty sheepskins with the legs up—a frail craft, apparently, but the party, five in number, floated on it safely 190 miles over numerous rapids, the total descent being 1,250 feet. In the great cañon the river flows between walls of limestone rock 450 feet high, many of the characteristic features corresponding closely to those of the Grand Cañon of the Colorado, "showing that the two rivers are of nearly the same age." Mr. Huntington calls attention to the possibility of reclaiming Mesopotamia, formerly one of the most fertile tracts in the world, but now largely a desert, by means of irrigation reservoirs in the great depression of the upper Euphrates valley.

The Korea *Review* for June, besides papers on burial customs and Japanese banking (the latter article showing the risks of trade in a country that still holds to the silver standard), contains an account of the wreck of the *Kumagawa Maru* by collision with another Japanese steamer off the western coast of Korea, in which Dr. H. G. Appenzeller lost his life. For seventeen years in the once hermit kingdom, this American scholar and man of affairs was foremost in travel, literary, and educational enterprises. He had made pioneer journeys throughout most of the provinces of the little peninsular empire, edited the Korean *Repository*, built the first brick edifice in Seoul, was the first educator of Korean young men in English, secured the widening of the narrow streets of the capital city and the building of good roads, and took part in the ceremonies on the completion of Independence Arch, near the old Chinese Gate under which, as vassal of the Emperor of China, the King of Korea paid homage. At the time of his death this typical American teacher was librarian of the Korea Asiatic Society.

A valuable feature of the work of the Asiatic Society of Japan appears in part ii. of volume xxix. of the Transactions, just received. It is a catalogue of the Japanese books published in the year 1902, from January to June. The librarian, the Rev. A. Lloyd, 56 Tsukiji, Tokio, will be glad to assist in procuring these books, or to make arrangements to have translations made at moderate charges. The titles, with transliteration into the Roman form and Chinese ideographs, name of the author and publisher, price, place of publication, and explanation of the general purpose and contents of the books, are given. Under the categories of art, education, ethics, and religion, fiction, law, poetry and literature, and "miscellaneous questions of the day," about six-score are listed and described. Most of these are low-priced, many costing less than half a dollar, while showing a wonderful range of intellectual activity.

Miss Gould bought an almost unique collection of works on Mormonism, made by Mr. Berrien, as a present to the New York Public Library. With this purchase she gave other documents she had gathered on the specialty, and added a fund for supplementing it further. Accordingly our critic of Mr. Linn's 'Story of the Mormons' spoke of this special library as "accumulated" by her. The bulletin of the Public Library for December, 1899, with Miss Gould's letter of presentation, titles of the rarest specimens, and other details, is worth consultation, and will quicken interest in the volume by which Mr. Linn has been said to have done for Mormonism what Mrs. Stowe did for slavery.

—The September *Atlantic* assigns its leading position to a negro to discuss the problem of the "Training of Black Men." The ability of Dr. DuBois to write intelligently on matters concerning his race has often been demonstrated, and the article before us ought to prove to any thinking person that the aspirations of the colored people of America cannot be suppressed on the flimsy ground of race inferiority. It is merely a question of the right to full opportunity for race and individual improvement, and this cannot exist apart from absolute equality before the law, practical as well as theoretical. It demands, also, a willingness on the part of the masses to judge the negro simply on his merits as a man. The prejudices that prevent this, Dr. DuBois holds, are not to be encouraged by being let alone. "They must be recognized as facts, but unpleasant facts; things that stand in the way of civilization and religion and common decency." He will have none of the doctrine that the training of the colored youth should be simply for industrial pursuits. The counting of human beings merely as a part of the material resources of a country, to be regarded with a view to future dividends, was "born of slavery," he thinks, "and quickened into renewed life by the crazy imperialism of the day." It is a hopeful sign to find in an intelligent leader of the colored race so clear a knowledge of the real meaning of imperialism to the progress of that race. We are glad to see the *Atlantic* keeping up the discussion, in spite of the fate which overtook Professor Sledd. A solution of

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the problem is a necessity to the continued moral and political progress of both races; and in order to a solution, prejudices must soften and discussion must be free. Eben Greenough Scott contributes a very helpful article on "Going into the Woods," but one feels that it would have been a little more timely in the spring, when plans for the summer were in preparation. As it is, it will only aid many readers to regret their mistakes. Herbert W. Horwill contends for a new University, in the form of an examining body empowered to confer degrees, for the purpose of establishing a national standard of education.

—It will be a surprise to many to learn from Walter A. Wyckoff, in the September *Scribner's*, that the poor of East London are not in the lowest depths of vice, squalor, and misery. Mr. Wyckoff spent many days in tramping East London streets, looking for what one would naturally expect to find there, and found it not. On the contrary, his final impression was that of a district comfortably clad, well fed, and unusually well behaved, considering its enormous population of the laboring poor. This he attributes in part to the present era of prosperity, though one hardly knows just what title London has to any share in the present era of American-made, tariff-protected, home-market prosperity. A trip through Abyssinia, the country of Menelik, "King of Kings and Conquering Lion of Judah," is described by William F. Whitehouse, and Mary H. Peixotto contributes a sketch of Mostar, the Herzegovinian capital. "A Fisherman of Costla," by James B. Connolly, is an unusually good short story. Mr. Russell Sturgis has secured for "The Field of Art" a brief sketch of the growth of the Louvre Museum, by Alexandre Sandier, with the special object of showing the recent changes by which, from the unorganized condition of former years, it has been made, in the words of Mr. Sturgis, "the most splendid and attractive museum in Europe."

—'Historical Essays by Members of the Owens College, Manchester' (Longmans) is a jubilee publication which helps to commemorate the founding of the institution in 1851. The editors, Prof. T. F. Tout and Mr. James Tait, recall the fact that "the studies which bulk largest in the newer universities and colleges of England are naturally those which are of a scientific, technical, or professional character. The Owens College is no exception to this rule, nor would it wish to be." Yet, none the less, "history has occupied a prominent place in the studies of the Owens College almost from its inception." This last statement is strongly supported by the twenty essays which have been collected for the present occasion, and are now published in a stout, well-printed volume as examples of independent research. If we examine its origin, the historical impulse of the Owens College seems to flow in a direct channel from Mark Pattison, of whom the first professor of history, the late R. C. Christie, was a disciple. Since then the activity of the department has been well maintained under Dr. A. W. Ward and Prof. Tout. It may suit the modesty of the editors to say, "The historical department of the Owens College is still only in the making," but most readers will infer from the quality of these essays that historical studies, save perhaps of the most technical kind, may well be carried on at Manchester. Regarding the articles which are here put forward to illustrate the vitality of a single department in a great college, one is at once impressed by the extent of their range. They open with "The Beginnings of Cæsar-Worship," by Mr. Edward Fiddes, and close with "Historical Teaching under the English System of Elementary Education," by Mr. Thomas Bateson. To be sure, the topics have been taken mainly from British history or from the border land of British and Continental history, but there is nothing to suggest narrowness of teaching or paucity of resources. Of the contributions, a few that will be most likely to interest professional workers in history may be named. Professor Tout writes on "Wales and the March during the Barons' War"; Dr. Ward, on "Elisabeth, Princess Palatine"; Mr. Spenser Wilkinson, on "Napoleon, the First Phase"; and Mr. J. H. Rose, on "The Detention of Napoleon at St. Helena." The presence of women at the Owens College is also revealed by interesting papers on "The Legend of St. Ursula," by Mrs. T. F. Tout; "The Rule of St. Augustine," by Miss Elizabeth Speakman; "The Sumptuary Laws of Venice," by Miss Mary Newett; and "Historical Teaching in Secondary Schools," by Mrs. Alfred Haworth. The editors are extremely moderate in stating the book's pretensions: "The essays are all based upon a study of first-hand authorities, and in several cases unpublished materials have been utilized. Some may claim to throw new light upon old problems; others restate succinctly, and with reference to the latest results of research, matters which must be studied in a wide variety of sources not always very accessible." All this is true, but for our own part we have been quite as much impressed by the excellence of the form as by the value of the investigation.

—'A Primer of Greek Constitutional History,' by A. H. Walker, M.A. (Oxford: B. H. Blackwell; London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co.), is based on Greenidge's 'Handbook of Greek Constitutional History,' and is largely indebted to that excellent manual, though the author has rearranged his material, and treated it in an independent manner, with direct references to original sources. The result is a small volume of about half the compass of Greenidge's, of sound and creditable scholarship, which sketches neatly the development of Athenian democracy and its political machinery from its beginning in monarchy and aristocracy; and which discusses clearly the processes of transition from the Homeric king to aristocracy, oligarchy, and tyranny. Two chapters on the "Mixed Constitutions" of Sparta and Crete complete the survey of those miniature experiments in government which are so interesting to the student of constitutional history. A brief chapter on federal governments would certainly have interested the American student. This primer was originally planned with the purpose of aiding "to prepare boys for classical scholarships," and this statement reveals its scope and limitations. It is not barred to the general reader who seeks accuracy, and it may be useful in some of our best preparatory schools and as a short cut for the college student. But our college student will be more apt to use Greenidge's manual, and to supplement his reading from Gilbert, Meier and Schoemann; and similar authorities. Some misplaced accents in the index and in the body of this work make a discord with its general tone of scholarship, and in the third paragraph of page 75, "Roman invasion" must be a slip for *Dorian*.

—Nature study, a comparatively new departure in school education in this country and in England, is nearly a century old in Germany, instruction of the children of rural districts in the culture of fruit and vegetables having been obligatory in some parts of the empire since 1814. The school garden has been from the first an essential part of the scheme, and the English Board of Education, on adopting the German idea, sent an inspector, Mr. T. G. Rooper, to visit some schools where gardening forms part of the ordinary work of the scholars. His report, just issued, is an admirable summary of the methods of instruction, both of children and of teachers, with many practical details. A most attractive picture is drawn of an elementary school, corresponding to our primary and grammar schools, where there was a four years' course, of which Mr. Rooper gives a syllabus. Here was apparent one of the great advantages of the scheme. Instruction in fruit culture has been for twelve years the principal aim of the master, with the result that "the villagers have now taken to fruit-growing as an important subsidiary industry. They spend much of their leisure time in their gardens, and they save much money." Another advantage is the wholesome moral effect which this making of the garden a "living primer to the great Book of Nature" has upon the town children especially, in counteracting false excitement and craving after unwholesome amusements. One of the best town schools visited is in a suburb of Frankfort-on-the-Main, and a proof of its influence is shown in a tract of some 200 acres, only a mile from the centre of the city, divided into small garden plots of about 200 square yards, each with a little summer-house. These plots are let for $4.50 a year, and the fruit and vegetables raised upon them more than pay the rent, while "the summer-house is the scene of an almost nightly tea picnic" for the man and his family. A playground is provided for the young children, and the very poor are supplied with land gratis, by means of an old charity devoted to the purpose. Several photographs accompany Mr. Rooper's report.

—The gradual accumulation, step by step and year by year, of materials for filling in the scanty outlines of early Egyptian history goes on apace, and it is satisfactory to reflect that a goodly share of these new and important materials is annually distributed among the rising museums on our side of the Atlantic. The exhibition of all that was found this year, chiefly at Abydos, by Professor Petrie and the Egypt Exploration Fund, closed with the month of July, after attracting general attention. The fruit of this year's work must in part be shown by what is to be gathered in next year, since about half the outlay for excavation has been made with a view to reaching deposits that have not yet been actually touched, although they have in some sort been seen to exist. Extensive tombs of the first Egyptian Dynasty formed part of Professor Petrie's find of this year,

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and have been connected—thanks to his indefatigable scientific ingenuity—with remarkably classified remains of prehistoric times found below the historic levels. Relics from Twelfth Dynasty tombs were also very conspicuous in his exhibition of this year, as were various inscribed bits of friezes, a number of sculptured bas-reliefs, and two very fine heads modelled in the early Egyptian and realistic fashion. Dr. Grenfell's Greco-Roman exhibition likewise formed an important part of this year's exhibition in Gower Street. The miscellaneous articles abounding in the Egyptian tombs of Roman date, the striking portrait-heads found on the mummy-cases of that period, specimens of variously shaped glass bottles, more or less fragmentary bits of harnesses, baskets used for toilet articles—these are some of the curiously modern appurtenances of latter-day life in Hellenized Egypt which have rewarded the laborers of the Greco-Roman branch of the Egypt Exploration Fund under Dr. Grenfell's superintendence.

—While Professor Petrie's and Dr. Grenfell's exhibition was open in London, a smaller exhibit was also made in the lecture-room of the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford; likewise of Egyptian antiquities unearthed this last season. Here were objects found by Mr. John Garstang a little west of Girgeh, whose investigations were made under the auspices of Mr. Hilton-Price, Mr. Arthur Evans, and a few other gentlemen who had been particularly struck by the discoveries made recently at a necropolis close to the site chosen by Mr. Garstang. Tombs of the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Dynasties were unearthed and a new series of monuments, of a kind not hitherto connected with Third and Fifth Dynasty tombs, has come to light. Among dated objects may be mentioned a glazed seal of Khafra and a bowl with the name of Sneferu inscribed on it. Both of these are thus indisputably assigned to the Fourth Dynasty. The character and relative position of several other objects found makes it possible to date them also. Most interesting, again, was a mace-head in alabaster on which was carefully wrought a "rope pattern" in sectional lines. It was surmounted with a curious inlaid cap of ivory with a removable stopper—just such an one as might have served in the Herodotean tale for the secreting of poison. This mace and a number of very graceful vases of remarkable size, in alabaster and in marble, came from one and the same tomb, presumably a royal one. Mr. Garstang further found a very curious shell carved in diorite and in many ways suggesting the workmanship of a curious shell unearthed by Mr. Evans at Knossos. Besides all these treasures and several others belonging to the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Dynasties—not hitherto abundantly represented in any museums—Mr. Garstang discovered some very good jewelry of the Nineteenth Dynasty. Altogether he is to be congratulated on the results of his first independent campaign.

PROGRESS OF LAW IN ENGLAND.

A Century of Law Reform: Twelve Lectures on the Changes in the Law of England during the Nineteenth Century. Delivered at the Request of the Council of Legal Education. The Macmillan Co. 1901.

Legislative Methods and Forms. By Sir Courtenay Ilbert. New York: Henry Frowde. 1901.

These two volumes deserve hearty praise. They do honor to their authors and to the profession which they represent. Considered as literature, they are far superior to much that passes for historical writing, and may be found, to a great extent, not unreadable by the laity. The admiration of the American lawyer will be tempered, it is true, with envy. No such progress in legal reform as is here recorded has taken place in this country. No doubt it can be said that such progress was impossible because there was no such need for reform. When our forefathers crossed the ocean, they left behind them most of the legal abuses the suppression of which is so exultantly described in one of these books. As Webster showed in his great oration at Plymouth, in 1820, there was no place under our governments for the principles of the feudal system. There were no lands yielding rent, no tenants rendering service; and property was held and transferred by rules as simple as the lives of its owners.

Nevertheless, we cannot be blind to tendencies in our laws which are not encouraging. Statutes are multiplied incredibly, but not many of them embody reforms. We might almost say that abuses in England kindled a zeal for reform that has steadily grown more enlightened, while in our own country the absence of evil conditions has fostered an easy optimism under which abuses are becoming established. We are not saying that we have done nothing in the way of reform. In correcting the unjust laws relating to women we have gone as far as our English brethren, and in many other departments of law we have made changes as sweeping. But with fifty different jurisdictions, and a Federal system independent of them all, nothing could have been accomplished comparable in symmetry with the results attained in England. There a single system of law, highly centralized, could be and has been scientifically modified. Here the multitude of our councils has made systematic and scientific progress impracticable.

We cannot attempt to describe or even to enumerate the changes in the law in England which these lectures explain. They amount to a revolution, but they have been effected so gradually and so carefully as to have caused no appreciable disturbance. Women have been emancipated, children have been protected and educated, laborers have been granted equal rights with masters, the suffrage has been made almost universal. Dissenters, Catholics, Jews, and Atheists have been relieved of their disabilities, local governments and local courts have been established, and the whole system of representation altered. In the field of municipal government the extent of progress may be measured by the fact that, at the beginning of the last century, there were no sewers and no police.

In the law itself nothing but the main principles is the same. The courts are different, the practice is different, the education of the bar is different; even the substantive law is largely new. In the law of real property, the most difficult of all to change, extensive alterations have been made. Strict settlements have been rendered futile and transfers made easy. The difference between the criminal law of 1800 and that of the present day is the difference between barbarism and civilization. The lecturers agree that the descriptions of the treatment of debtors which we owe to Thackeray and Dickens, were correct. Jarndyce v. Jarndyce contains no exaggeration. So Mr. Augustin Birrell assures us, and proves his case by showing what the Court of Chancery was and how it has practically ceased to exist. The things that have disappeared from its jurisprudence would, he says, "if listed, as motions used to be towards the end of a term, easily engirdle all the Four Inns of Court."

Probably most of the changes have been statutory, but many of them have been due to the common sense of the judges. In former times the bailiff in charge of a jury was sworn to keep them "without meat, drink, or fire." On one occasion a juror asked for a glass of water, and the bailiff came into court and inquired of Mr. Justice Maule if he might comply with the request. "Well," said the Judge, "it is not meat, and *I* should not call it drink; yes, you may." We cannot believe that Lord Ellenborough was unconscious of his humor when he denied a motion to reduce the salary of his son, whom he had made chief clerk in his own court at £10,000 a year. "Reduction of salary must proceed on the ground of diminution in duty. Now, as nothing has ever been done in the clerkship of the Court of King's Bench, it is impossible that less could be done in it in future." And as the law has been improved through the efforts of intelligent and conscientious lawyers, so have the methods of its administration. We quote from Mr. Odgers, one of the readers to the Inns of Court:

"Of all the mighty changes that have taken place in the nineteenth century, the greatest change has been in the tone of the administration of both the civil and criminal law. The manners of our law courts have marvellously improved. Formerly judges browbeat the prisoners, jeered at their efforts to defend themselves, and censured juries who honestly did their duty. Formerly, too, counsel bullied the witnesses and perverted what they said. Now the attitude and temper of her Majesty's judges towards parties, witnesses, and prisoners alike have wholly changed, and the bar too behave like gentlemen. . . . The moral tone of the bar is wholly different from what it was when Bentham wrote; they no longer seek to obtain a temporary victory by unfair means; they remember that it is their duty to assist the Court in eliciting the truth."

Both in style and in substance Sir Courtenay Ilbert's book deserves to rank with Maine's writings. In a few luminous paragraphs he explains how and why English law has had a different development from that of France or Germany. He traces the stages of the improvement of the statute law, and epitomizes its history. It is altogether impossible within any reasonable space to do justice to the marvellously complete and succinct manner in which the analysis of the great body of statutory law is accomplished. The working of the legislative machine is explained so clearly that not only American lawyers but even American laymen can comprehend it. Indeed, we have here a manual for legislators, showing them

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how statutes should be drawn and how they may be enacted.

When we consider the appalling mass of statutes of which our legislators are annually guilty—crude, blundering, ignorant, mischievous, and even dishonest, as many of them are—and contrast the spectacle with that presented by Sir Courtenay, we feel an emotion of despair. Such a book as his, one would think, would be the vade-mecum of every legislator and of every one who aspired to be a legislator. It is a scientific manual and the manual of a science. Yet among our thousands and tens of thousands of legislators we doubt if fifty readers of the book will be found. Most of our lawmakers appear to be quite incapable of conceiving lawmaking as a science; few of those who are capable of this conception would care to master so profound a treatise as this. But to legal scholars, and to such legislators as are of statesmanlike cast, this book will be a delight. It will show them not only how the incomparable progress of English law has taken place and is now going on, but also how that progress has been regulated and directed by living statesmen trained to understand what can be done by a legislature for the welfare of a nation, and how fit is to be done best. So long as England can produce the material for such books, and men who can write them, so long will she keep her place as the country in which civilization has attained its highest development.

Naval Efficiency: The War Readiness of the Fleet. By Archibald S. Hurd. London: Chapman & Hall. 1902.

It is impossible, within the limits at our disposal, to do full justice to this interesting work, in itself a veritable mine of useful information as to the British fleet, for it runs over the whole gamut of naval thought from an empire's necessities in men-of-war to the speed of battle-ships and the future of the submarine boat. It deals thoroughly, or reasonably so, with only one topic, and that is, oddly enough, not naval efficiency, but naval supremacy. It is written with intense earnestness, with which is mingled despair that others should be wilfully blind to the dangers so patent to the author. Its real purpose is to preach the true doctrine of Great Britain's national defence—a predominant navy—a doctrine which is theoretically admitted on all sides, although the army stands higher in public and social estimation, and gets, generally, the lion's share in the appropriations for military objects. There is little that is novel in Mr. Hurd's argument, but his presentation of the case is forceful, and so tactfully backed by figures as to command attention without wearying the reader. Mr. Hurd begins with the relations existing between the navy and the nation, and passes to the "Functions of a Navy," which he illustrates by a reference to two recent episodes.

"It was not by adding to the coastguard ships, or patrolling our shores, that the Government of the day replied to the German Emperor's hasty telegram to President Kruger at the time of the Jameson raid, but by the commissioning of a special-service squadron, which immediately took to the seas, ready, as Viscount Goschen explained, 'to go anywhere or do anything.' When the Fashoda crisis occurred, were the far-flung squadrons recalled from their patrols and spread out around our shores in case the French Government decided to attempt a landing at Dover or a raid in the Thames? At the first whisper of serious trouble in the autumn of 1898, our shores were defended by the fleet taking the offensive. The reserve squadron rendezvoused at Portland, it is true, but the right arm of the empire was bared at Gibraltar and Malta. At the Rock the Channel Squadron assembled in all its might. . . . Simultaneously the Mediterranean Squadron hurriedly returned to Malta."

It was, we think, Sir George Clarke who first pointed out the fact that England's army is her arm of offence, her navy her arm of defence; and this view, although not so clearly stated by Mr. Hurd, seems to underlie, unconsciously, much of his criticism of governmental policy. "Usually the army has absorbed the far larger share of the money set aside for securing our national safety." This practice, our author believes, has resulted in denying the funds necessary to keep the navy superior to the navies of any two Powers that may combine against England, as recommended by a board of three distinguished Admirals in 1889, for he finds (p. 257) that she has three less modern battle-ships built, building, and to be laid down this year, than Russia and Germany, and only three more than France and Russia. This leads him into the dream of an imperial navy supported jointly by the home Government and the colonies, although he is obliged to admit that it is but a dream, after all, like Mr. Chamberlain's Zollverein.

Either dread is contagious, or there is a conspiracy to create a bogy, for Mr. Hurd soberly analyzes "The German Menace," and finds it real. "By 1908 they [the Germans] will have in the North Sea . . . seventeen battle-ships, a similar number of cruisers, and forty torpedo craft, with another great squadron of equal strength in reserve. Germany will dominate those waters in which the British are practically unrepresented," etc. It's a sturdy spook which can scare both Anglo-Saxon nations at the same time. Can it be that exorcising is in order? If so, where is the priest to come from? One of the ablest living writers on military matters once said to the reviewer, "Why not establish an international police for the maintenance of order? You Americans, with your vast and growing population, could undertake the shore part, and we English the sea part, the expenses to be shared by the great Powers. If an ambitious politician wished to gain notoriety by inconsiderately entering upon a war he would have to fight, not one country, but the whole of Christendom." Until this or a similar counsel of perfection prevails, the dreary rivalry in ship construction seems bound to continue, with its heavy burdens which no nation is able, or willing, to cast aside. What a distressing commentary on the world's progress towards the millennium that so large a proportion of the revenue of every Christian country is devoted to ways and means of killing men.

So far as naval expert opinion is concerned, this rivalry is not without its peril, for it is easy to fall into the same error as Mr. Hurd and to confound naval supremacy with naval efficiency. Maritime wars will not be decided by statistics; the sea **habit** and good gunnery will not cease to be the dominating factors in success. "There are no ships in the world which are so much at sea as those of the British fleet," says our author, yet he fails to derive from this momentous fact the comfort it should yield. As to the ability to hit the target, the sole purpose for which ships are built, he quotes the record of seven vessels, armed each with twelve six-inch guns, which in 1900 made percentages from the *Mars's* 28.4 to the *Terrible's* 76.8, and he hopes that the general average for the whole British navy may be doubled. "Thus, without adding a ship to the effective list, the power to sink the enemy may be increased two-fold." This is the real naval efficiency, or at least a part of naval efficiency, a subject to which practically but one chapter out of ten is devoted, although occasional references to it are made elsewhere. While all the rest is readable, it is this tithe which deserves especial study for the light it throws upon how to convert money into a fleet ready to go anywhere with dispatch, and give and take the frightful blows which modern science has devised for the adjusting of international differences.

The starting-point is a well considered organization at the Admiralty. With this the author expresses himself as satisfied. We fear our own Navy Department might be improved in this respect, and, indeed, we understand that a general staff, or something nearly akin to it, is to be instituted by the Secretary of the Navy, a measure which will be admirable in exact proportion to its turning the tide of an excessive centralization which takes from commandants of navy-yards and commanding officers of vessels pretty much all of their initiative, self-reliance, and self-respect. These words of Mr. Hurd's are pregnant with suggestion which might properly be heeded at Washington: "At last it has been decided to decentralize some of the authority which has been vested with the Admiralty, and give the port admirals wider discretion." On page 190 he has a valuable table of the division of duties among the British Lords of the Admiralty as introductory to his chapter on the "War Readiness of the Fleet." This table shows the way in which the affairs of some 120,000 officers and men are managed, and some $160,000,000 are disbursed. How to make good the wastage of so large a body and how to supply an adequate reserve, are questions to which no very satisfactory answers have yet been found. With a personnel but one-fifth as numerous, we are experiencing a similar difficulty on this side of the water—smaller but more acute, because we have so few deep-water ships and sailors. It should be gratifying to Americans to learn that our example has been followed "by establishing a school of naval strategy" modelled on the lines laid down in 1884 for our own Naval War College by Rear-Admiral Luce, Commander Sampson, and Lieutenant-Commander Goodrich.

Scattered throughout Mr. Hurd's volume are many excellent reflections on the unwisdom of excessive fortification; the need of more cruisers, especially for commerce protection; the folly of building single "specimen ships" rather than groups; on speed in warfare; naval manœuvres; the torpedo destroyer, and other new types of craft, etc., etc. The demagogues who de-

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creed that battle-ships should be built in our own navy-yards might with profit read what our author has to say in this connection: "Portsmouth dockyard, in particular, has fallen from its high estate; work drags on from month to month, and the delays seem to increase. . . . It is almost a year since the armored cruiser *Kent* was sent afloat, and little progress has been made with her. Her armor plates are in the yard, but they are not being fixed."

The publishers deserve thanks for an agreeable piece of bookmaking, that inclines the reader at the outset to a sympathy with the author which is not lessened by the points wherein the two may differ, and which is heightened by the simple, direct style and the almost passionate fervor with which the author's pleadings are clothed. It is as if the fears and longings of the whole British navy were poured forth in the book, so completely does the advocate sink himself in his cause.

Literature of American History: A Bibliographical Guide. (American Library Association's Annotated Lists.) J. N. Larned, General Editor. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

We have already editorially passed judgment upon the general scheme of appraisal here first exemplified. The work itself seems to merit somewhat critical examination, if only for the sake of its successors. What we first remark is, that the great libraries of the country are unrepresented on the staff of contributors, though it is of prime importance to have criticisms from men acquainted with large collections of books. This will partly, at least, explain the fact that many first-rate works are omitted, many minor works are included. Compare Barry's 'History of Massachusetts,' for which no place can be found, with Elbridge Brooks's 'Stories of the Old Bay State.' Again, a popular and illustrated account of the voyage of the *Mayflower* appears among a series of works on the colonial period, with a note much fuller than that given to Lechford's 'Plain Dealing,' and the first half of this comment is taken verbatim from the preface of the work. And why insert, under the French Régime in Canada, Sheldon's 'Early History of Michigan,' while omitting Smith's 'History of Wisconsin,' which has documentary material? Under Westward Expansion, we find Ford's monograph of sixty pages, which is very restricted in its scope, but a work like Onis's 'Official Correspondence,' which covers the entire negotiations with Spain to 1819, is not noticed. In this section Henry Adams's exposition of the Louisiana purchase given in his 'History of the First Administration of Jefferson' might well have been substituted for some valueless monographs which have been included.

There is a failure to select best editions and to notice the distinctive characteristics of various editions. The Parkman Club publication on De Tonty is preferred to the original edition of his narration, of which there are several issues of the English text. "The Journal of Christopher Gist," in the Massachusetts Historical Society Collections, is referred to, but the more accessible text presented by Darlington under the title 'Journals, with Historical, Geographical, and Ethnological Notes,' published at Pittsburgh in 1893, is neglected. The old edition of Yoakum's 'Texas' is referred to, but without mention of the fact that the new edition published in 1898, under the editorship of D. G. Wooten, gives the original text of Yoakum with new notes, and the history brought down to 1897. The new edition of the 'Westover Papers,' edited by John Spencer Bassett, which has illustrative material not contained in the earlier work, is equally passed over. Under the Colonial Period of New England we find Strachey's account of Popham colony contained in the Massachusetts Historical Society Collections, but no notice of the complete work published by the Hakluyt Society, or of the material gathered by Alexander Brown in his 'Genesis of the United States.' The Hakluyt publication is, to be sure, noticed further on in another subdivision, where the note states that the "work is highly authoritative, though the treatment is occasionally pedantic."

In the division on Constitutional History —Teutonic and English origins—great space is devoted to the late Herbert B. Adams's monographs, but no hint is given of Chamberlain's dignified and illuminating criticism. There seems to be quite as much reason to insert here Froude's 'History of England' as Gardiner's. Maitland's 'Domesday Book' is rightly included, but the works of Ashley, Round, and Vinogradoff, whose claims are equally good, are omitted. Waiving the point that Gross's 'Bibliography of British Municipal History' does not concern American history, his 'Sources and Literature of English History' has a better title to recognition.

The note under Mather's 'Magnalia,' stating that "the best and most usable edition of this extraordinary book is that published in 1853; but it has no index," reads curiously, in view of the fact that an edition was published in 1855, supplied with an index by S. G. Drake. Furthermore, this edition contains errata from Mather's MS. not found in other editions. The index, with a memoir of Prince, is sometimes found in a separate pamphlet. It is astonishing to find the Clayton-Bulwer treaty represented only by Curtis's 'Life of Buchanan' and a chapter in Tucker's volume on the Monroe Doctrine. The former title is found under the division, Period of the Slavery Question, and the latter under Comprehensive History. A book like Travis's 'Clayton-Bulwer Treaty,' which, although an academic thesis, has substantial value, is lost to view. It is a strange classification which includes separate treatises on the Monroe Doctrine under the heading "Comprehensive History." There is little uniformity in the entry of titles. For instance, the "Coleccion de Documentos Inéditos" is entered in one division under "Coleccion" and in another under "Pacheco." Margry's great collection of documents has two different forms of entry, one of which is distinctly inexact. In the classification of titles there are some curious juxtapositions: Knox's 'Historical Journal of the Campaign of North America' is followed by Leroy-Beaulieu's 'De la Colonisation chez les Peuples Modernes.'

In regard to the annotations, most of the writers seem to have had a poor conception of what constitutes a bibliographical note. Winsor has been drawn upon, and where he is quoted textually the notes are most effective. The proofreader or the editor shows lack of acquaintance with historical authors. The index recognizes only one person as the author of the works of the elder and younger Charles Francis Adams.

We are bound to add that some of these defects were to be looked for in the beginning of such an enterprise; yet the great difficulty must ever be to control the services of men having the requisite bibliographical knowledge, the proper critical capacity, and the faculty for condensed and pertinent annotation.

The Sermon on the Mount: Its Literary Structure and Didactic Purpose. By Benjamin W. Bacon, D.D. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

Professor Bacon's book has had a history. In its first form it was a series of six lectures delivered to the Bible class of a New Haven church. In its second form it was a single lecture delivered before the students of Wellesley College. That lecture is now printed, with considerable additions and with foot-notes in great abundance. Professor Bacon calls the form of the lecture "semi-popular," but the designation is too flattering to the intelligence of popular apprehension. Some of the sillier sheep at Wellesley must have looked up and not been fed, for Professor Bacon's talent for exposition is not equal to his scholarship, which is clearly of the best. The lecture is, however, clarity itself compared with the three appendices, which are intended "to exhibit by analytical and synthetic criticism the nature and inter-connection of the greater discourses of Jesus." But these appendices are not intended for the general reader. They are Professor Bacon's justification, to other scholars and to studious clergymen, of the results set forth in the lecture and of the methods by which they are obtained. They admit one to the processes of the higher criticism in a very interesting manner. These processes are conjectural to a considerable degree, and they will not be equally convincing to all who examine them. The more conservative will find them rash, if not irreverent, and some of them will prefer the New Testament as it is written to Professor Bacon's disintegration and reconstruction, which leave hardly one text of the original version standing securely on another. Even the lecture in its more popular form is not reassuring for those who are hoping that the results of the higher criticism can be made accessible to simple folk. Its processes, as here revealed, are extremely tentative, and Professor Bacon so frankly discloses his disagreement with other scholars of great reputation that he sensibly diminishes the appearance of certainty attaching to his own results.

In the fore part of the lecture, careful attention is given to the objections that have been urged against the existence of any Sermon on the Mount as a long, articulated discourse. These objections are: that the discourse as given abounds in neo-legalism, which was an afterthought of early Christianity; that the teaching of Jesus was made up of short, detached sayings; that, according to Luke, about one-fourth of the Sermon on the Mount, as given by Matthew, was given on other occasions. These objections are all met with partial concessions, the first by the very nice dis-

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tinction that the neo-legalism in Matthew is that of the compiler, not that of Jesus himself, but that the Sermon as given by Jesus was quasi-legalistic, having the spirit of Paul's anti-legalism, but the form to some extent of a new law. This is considering very curiously, but the opinion is carefully worked out. The second objection is met with the contention, not perfectly made good, that Jesus was more prophet than scribe, and that much of his teaching had the character of continuity. The third objection is less confuted than confessed. But granted that the Sermon in Matthew is largely a mistaken synthesis, it need not be so in its entirety, and Professor Bacon insists that it is not.

Before passing to his own synthesis, Professor Bacon halts for a few pages to rebuke those who speak lightly or scornfully of the higher criticism. He is unduly sensitive to the blame that has been visited upon his guild. When he gets fairly to work, first to eliminate the elements that are incongruous with the main body of the Sermon, and then to construct this in a new and better synthesis, he is always interesting, and generally quite convincing, if not entirely so. The new synthesis as given is a coherent and effective discourse on "the higher righteousness." Both in its general amount and in the brevity of particular parts, it keeps much closer to Luke's than to Matthew's form. The Lord's Prayer is one of the eliminated parts. The third appendix, which endeavors to free the incongruous parts from their false agglutination and set them in their appropriate relations, is hardly more ingenious than persuasive. But that a professor of New Testament criticism in Yale University should handle his material in this free-and-easy way, setting the evangelists right in so many particulars, is a remarkable sign of the times, and of the length the doctrine of the Bible's verbal inspiration has been left behind.

Life and Letters of Thomas Cromwell. By Roger Bigelow Merriman. With a portrait and facsimile. 2 vols. New York: Henry Frowde. 1902.

The thesis on Thomas Cromwell which Dr. Merriman presented at Oxford for the Bachelor of Letters degree, has now been given permanent form in a book, and published by the Clarendon Press. The two handsome volumes before us are a production which any historical scholar might be glad to put forth as his "first heir." Both in point of learning and of expression this work is more than usually creditable, and should prove an incentive to sustained effort.

Dr. Merriman performs a double function. Besides writing an adequate account of Cromwell's life, he publishes a large body of his correspondence.

"To transcribe *in extenso* the letters he received would be almost the task of a lifetime, for they form the bulk of the enormous mass of material with which the editors of the Calendars of State Papers for the years 1533-40 have had to deal. But the number of extant letters he wrote is, comparatively speaking, extremely small; it has, therefore, been possible to make full copies of them in every case, and I trust that the many advantages—linguistic as well as historical—that can only be secured by complete and, as far as possible, accurate transcriptions of the originals, will be accepted as sufficient reason for editing this collection of documents, twenty-one of which have neither been printed nor calendared before."

We quote this passage because it refers to one of the most important features of the work. Not only "has it been justly said that Cromwell's correspondence is our chief source of information for the period immediately following the breach with Rome," his letters are, if we go by bulk, the chief factor in this study, and, thanks to Dr. Merriman's painstaking transcription, they now become accessible as they have never been before.

The early part of Cromwell's life is a subject notoriously obscure and difficult. Mr. James Gairdner has tried his hand at it, briefly, in the Dictionary of National Biography, and Mr. John Phillips has given portions of it minute attention in local researches regarding the manor of Wimbledon. Though Dr. Merriman supplies a clear examination of the evidence already known, he has nothing of material interest to add. On the whole, his attitude towards the meagre data which exist is a conservative one.

"It has been the fashion to decry Bandello and Foxe, and to disbelieve all their stories, because of the undoubted confusion of dates which vitiates their testimony. But if no reliance can be placed on them, or on Pole, Chapuys, and the chronicles of the period, must we not confess that our knowledge of the early years of our subject's life must reduce itself to an interrogation point?"

It must have been a remarkable chapter of experiences in Italy and the Low Countries which helped to shape Cromwell's character, and give him such practical rules of conduct in his dealings with men. The famous novel of Bandello regarding the courtesy of the Florentine Francesco Frescobaldi to a stranger who afterwards became the great and powerful Cromwell, may be overdrawn in particular details, but it does not exaggerate the vicissitudes of a phenomenal career. Dr. Merriman considers that Cromwell was at the battle of the Garigliano, in 1503, and not, as Galton would have it, at Marignano, twelve years later. There can hardly be a doubt concerning the incorrectness of the latter opinion.

More important than the question of Cromwell's adventures abroad is that of his personal character. Dr. Merriman rejects without hesitation the idea of Cavendish, Shakspere, and Froude, that he was loyal to Wolsey in any true sense of the word. The most that can be said in his favor is, that he was the chief means of securing the Cardinal's temporary pardon in February, 1530. The real crisis, however, came in the autumn of the same year, when Wolsey's enemies were drawn up in battle array. Then Cromwell did nothing for his master, and it seems most doubtful whether at any time he did more on behalf of the fallen statesman than was necessary to protect his own reputation from a charge of base ingratitude. He at once sought out Wolsey's great foe, Norfolk, as his patron, made his peace, and almost certainly entered the Parliament of 1529 through Norfolk's means.

Dr. Merriman has made no new discovery in demonstrating the selfishness of Cromwell's personal aims (where money and power were concerned) and the Machiavellianism of his political principles. None the less, the emphasis which he lays upon Cromwell's sinister practices is important because it is the fruit of thorough and impartial research. The preface claims exemption from religious bias, and, so far as we have observed, the claim is just. Directly and indirectly Cromwell helped forward the Protestant cause, but he is the last man, among somewhat unedifying associates, whose acts can be made a theme for edification.

Dr. Merriman has an admirable chapter on "The Work of Thomas Cromwell," in which, among other things, it is pointed out that some of his radical measures had unlooked-for results. For example, the transfer of monastic lands to families like the Russells, Seymours, the Cavendishes worked out badly for the crown. He thus enriched a new aristocracy that, in the days of the Stuarts, proved hostile to that absolutism which Cromwell sincerely upheld.

Looking upon Cromwell as a politician first and foremost, *mutatis mutandis* as an English Maurice of Saxony, as a minister who entered into religious matters merely because they were fixed conditions, Dr. Merriman rather inclines to set aside the deeper religious problems of the period. We would not call this a defect of his work, for the aims proposed exclude the consideration of such things; but when we close this admirable monograph we do so with the feeling that the best in the English Reformation is not represented by the sentiments and policy of Thomas Cromwell.

A. W. Kinglake: A Biographical and Literary Study. By the Rev. W. Tuckwell. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1902.

Mr. Tuckwell is the first to publish a separate volume on Kinglake's life and works. In size the book is a slight one, but it tells us far more than could be learned from the article in the Dictionary of National Biography, and much of it has been drawn from fresh sources. Madame Novikoff, whose friendship with Kinglake was a very important feature of his later years, permitted Mr. Tuckwell to use such portions of her correspondence as were essential to his purpose; and though he has not pressed this privilege too far, it has proved particularly valuable. After making his other acknowledgments, it is in the following terms that he confesses his chief indebtedness:

"Kinglake's external life, his literary and political career, his speeches, and the more fugitive productions of his pen were recoverable from public sources; but his personal and private side, as it showed itself to the few close intimates who still survive, must have remained to myself and others meagre, superficial, disappointing, without Madame Novikoff's unreserved and sympathetic confidence."

Kinglake was born in that *annus mirabilis* of birth-years, 1809, and gained wide reputation at the age of thirty-five by the publication of 'Eothen.' The important part of his life covered about twenty years, between 1844 and 1864. Then, for above a quarter of a century, he remained a figure at the Athenæum Club and in select society, with the standing of a man who had achieved his place, but with a fame that was historic rather than contemporary. During the period when he was at work on his 'Invasion of the Crimea,' he entered Parliament for Bridgewater, and held his seat

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until 1868, when he was unseated for the corrupt practices of his agents. There is not much more to be told about his career save for his early travels in the East and his friendships. On the literary side he is known as the author of two striking books. As a personal force, he is memorable for his independence of view and a downrightness of utterance which sprang from conviction more than from bad manners. He was, Lord Houghton has said, "as bold a man-at-arms in literature as ever confronted public opinion."

Though a civilian, Kinglake had all the instincts of a professional warrior. His most prominent trait was fondness for the army and respect for those who showed themselves worthy to be its leaders. An amusing instance of this feeling is furnished by his comment upon the Salvation Army in the early days of its organization. "His deferential regard," says Mr. Tuckwell, "for army rank was like that of Johnson for bishops. Great was his indignation when the 'grotesque Salvation Army,' as he called it, adopted military nomenclature. 'I would let those ragamuffins call themselves saints, angels, prophets, cherubim, Olympian gods and goddesses if they like; but their pretension in taking the rank of officers in the army is to me beyond measure repulsive.'" Thus his hero-worship for Lord Raglan was neither surprising nor accidental. As the late J. C. Ropes was prevented by physical disability from being a soldier, and became a lawyer only by constraint, so it was with Kinglake. In his case, shortsightedness was the impediment, but he had courage and the venturesome spirit to the full. He was close behind Lord Raglan at the crossing of the Alma, and in the Crimea saw almost as much of action as the modern war correspondent does. From the same source sprang his reverence for the "strong man," wherever the latter might be discovered. He outlived, it is true, a large part of his admiration for Lord Stratford, but it was the Lord Stratford of later years whom he ceased to applaud. Of similar origin, too, was his friendship with Carlyle and with Froude. "Froude himself he often likened to Carlyle; the thoughts of both ran in the same direction, but, of the two, Froude was by far the more intellectual man."

Mr. Tuckwell's own criticism of 'Eothen' and the 'Invasion of the Crimea' is very fresh and entertaining. Kinglake, of course, looked upon the Crimean book as his masterpiece, and spent all his leisure to the moment of his death upon successive revisions of it. Unfortunately for the work, the subject tends to decline in importance, and our present standards of literary taste are averse to such hard hitting. 'Eothen,' however, remains and is still a delight. Those were fine days for travel books at the middle of the century, when 'The Monasteries of the Levant,' 'The Bible in Spain,' 'Eothen,' and 'The Crescent and the Cross' were appearing. Here Kinglake holds his own; and he more than holds his own in respect to character, for, with all his pugnacity, new evidence shows that he had sincerity of disposition.

Mr. Tuckwell is a lively writer, and his memoir is none too long. It should be especially praised for its copious supply of good stories.

Oriental Series: Japan and China. In Twelve Volumes. Vols. V.-VI. Japan: Its History, Arts, and Literature. By Capt. F. Brinkley. Boston: J. B. Millet Co.

These two volumes complete the first half of the proposed dozen on China and Japan. Besides a large colored folding map, there is an index to the six volumes. The historic point of view in Volume V. is that of one who surveys the Japan known to Europeans, its financial and economic conditions, foreign politics, steps of progress, creed and caste, religion and rites and superstitions. The ceremonial side of life and a history of commerce are presented in the concluding volume. The same mastery of his abundant materials, equal power of insight and interpretation, delight in his task, and clearness of expression characterize this portion of Capt. Brinkley's work, and the illustrations and mechanical outfit in quality and quantity are the same.

In discussing financial conditions, the author shows how finely the Japanese have been able to make much out of little—a trait, indeed, which seems to have distinguished the canny islanders throughout their whole history. Japan's great difficulty is still want of capital, and recourse to cheap money from outside seems to be the natural exit from difficulties that are pleasant rather than fearsome. While the currency was on a silver basis, Japan hesitated to contract gold debts, and European capitalists would not lend in terms of silver. Now her situation is much more favorable, but the conservatism of Western money-lenders is still great. Either they lack confidence in Japan's integrity, or they regard this as a still unknown land. Nevertheless, recent returns from sixty-eight joint-stock companies showed that these paid an average annual dividend of sixteen and one-half per cent. There are so many outlets to new industries, with so little home capital available, that temporary embarrassment is most natural.

The chapters on Japan's foreign politics are as strong as might be expected from one who discusses intricate questions of state with the native statesmen in their own tongue. They include a brief but luminous analysis of the Japanese campaigns on land and water in 1894-5. In showing "steps of progress," the viciousness of the quality of journalistic writing in Japan, which is marred by extreme and pedantic classicism, is shown. Even the imperial court is held in the grip of this Chinese old man of the sea, for when the Mikado (though Capt. Brinkley taboos this ancient and honorable word, which, besides having both significance and individuality, is entrenched in English literature) speaks, either by rescript or by edict, he never addresses the bulk of his subjects. His words are taken from sources so classical as to be intelligible only to the highly educated minority. Some of the newspapers ape this style also, sacrificing their audience to their erudition. Preferring classicism to circulation, their columns are a sealed book to the whole of the lower middle classes and to the entire female population. It seems strange that, while the Japanese should discard their picturesque costume, they still cling to a written language much more difficult to understand than their speech. Some of the journalists persist in making the national misfortune as great as possible. The greatest handicap upon Japan's progress, next to the bad mercantile morals, is her adherence to Chinese script and to the classic diction whose acquirement, even by a native, means the learning of a new language. Indeed, it seems almost like a paradox that the Japanese, so original in many respects, should so long have neglected the cultivation of their own tongue, and have given their intellectual strength to writing what is nothing but mispronounced Chinese. In "Creed and Caste" the author shows how powerfully, in times past, religion has made politics and shaped social organism; so much so that even at present the native scholar is instantly in peril who seeks to examine too critically the foundations on which the authority of the Emperor rests.

The chapter on superstitions is rich in delightful lore, showing how little removed from the intellectual habits of the North American Indian the average Japanese rustic is. Buddhism, with its doctrine of metempsychosis, is doubtless responsible for many phases of the belief, that makes the whole animal creation, from the elephant to the microbe, near relatives to the human family. Even yet in very respectable households a sword is placed near the corpse, to keep away cats, which, along with the fox and the badger, possess the power of transformation. The upper classes are comparatively free from such phantasies, but among the great multitude the traditional mysticism handed down from generation to generation in the secluded family circle of the Japanese nation has always been very considerable. Nevertheless, since Japan has never been troubled by the fiercer beasts of prey, lions and tigers, or by venomous reptiles, there are not many painful superstitions attaching to the lower orders of creation. Most of the notions are harmless and sunny. As tutelary spirits, or messengers of the gods, certain creatures are regarded with awe or amusement. Probably the colossal catfish whose writhings cause earthquakes is the largest of these imaginary beasts. The menagerie of mythical zoölogy is sufficiently stocked to enable blunderers and stupid folk generally to explain to scrutinizing wives or parents marks of personal damage. When escapades have happened through waywardness, illicit night adventures, or an overplus of alcoholic spirit, such imaginary creatures, that infest earth, air, and water, serve well as scapegoats.

What is here written on festivals, observances, and pastimes furnishes a key to much that would otherwise be inexplicable to the alien when he is studying the joyous side (a very large side) of Japanese life. Volume VI. might serve as a hand-book to spectators of the great processions which at certain seasons make the streets in Tokio so brilliant. Some of these *matsuri*, which last three days, show *dashi*, or profusely decorated cars with lofty platforms and images far up in the air, that have required months of preparation. These with the merrymakers rehearse, in brilliant color, famous episodes. Here one beholds how men get turned into gods, and how picturesque mediæval burglars masquerade as benefactors. Here sways aloft in air the bedizened traitor and villanous malefactor, to whom divine non-

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ors are paid in order to quiet his troubled spirit, or to win from him the approving smiles that bring prosperity. The great white elephant, with a man inside each leg, moves majestically on. The musicians who desolate the air with Korean and prehistoric music, the dancers, jesters, and posturers, delight thousands of spectators, and it is very evident that as long as these thieves, assassins, and ruffians are popularly glorified, Japan will reap fresh crops of home-grown assassins.

It is true that, as Capt. Brinkley explains, the real significance of these demonstrations is not mistaken in Japan, and that the worshippers at the tombs of murderers, and the bringers of offerings at the shrines of robbers, "abhor the sin without hating the sinner," and that the Government could stop these things in a moment if it would. Nevertheless, we believe that so long as the graves of the Forty-seven Ronins enjoy a perpetual decoration day, so long will the intending assassin find consecrated ground on which to nourish his murderous spirit and justify his purpose when, for the posthumous glory sure to be awarded him, he drives the knife home, considering himself the appointed "instrument of Heaven's vengeance." The late Fukuzawa by his pen drove hara-kari out of custom—yes, almost out of literature—and we believe that, in the future enlightened Japan, the burial-ground of the Forty-Seven Ronins will be closed as a public nuisance. In the history of commerce in Japan, our author presents, with liberal scholarship and critical acumen, almost every phase of this interesting subject, showing incidentally how the Japanese in their own way anticipated by their documentary expedients most of the methods of commerce in the West. As for the future, it is clear that the development in Japan's trade will be in the direction of manufactures. She may send abroad silk and tea, marine products, and some minor staples, but, unless Formosa develops unsuspected riches, her producing capacity has already shown its limits. Her extent of arable land is disproportionately small, there being less than twelve millions acres under crops, with little prospect of extension or of enlarged yield by new processes, while all the time population increases at the rate of half a million annually, and finer articles of food—for example, rice instead of barley and millet—are craved not as luxuries but as necessities. Japan must soon be obliged to import large supplies of rice, timber, of cotton and even of wool, for her pastures, rich in bamboo scrub but not in grass, are not for sheep. Nevertheless, with her cheap labor and her people, intelligent, docile, dexterous, and gifted with artistic taste, Japan has a great future in manufactures. The efficiency of the army and navy shows that it is not capacity but practice which the Japanese lack. What they have been able to do with soldiers on sea and land, they are likely to do in commerce and manufactures when they are less jealous of aliens and more coöperative in mind.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Burt, S. W. My Memoirs of the Military History of the State of New York. Albany: Published by the State.
Crimmins, J. D. St. Patrick's Day: Its Celebration in New York and Other American Places, 1737-1845. Published by the Author.
Desmond, H. W. The Heart of Woman. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.
Douglass, J. M. The Riding Master, and Other Stories. F. Tennyson Neely. $1.
Fyffe, H. C. Submarine Warfare. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.00.
Glasgow, Ellen. The Freeman, and Other Poems. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Gudeman, Alfred. P. Cornelii Taciti de Vita et Moribus Cn. Jul. Agricolae Liber. Berlin: Weidmannsche Buchhandlung. 1 mark 40 pfg.
Henley, W. E. Views and Reviews: Essays in Appreciation.—Art. Scribners. $1.00.
James, Henry. The Wings of a Dove. 2 vols. Scribners. $2.50.
Lindsay, C. M. Cavalier Poets. Abbey Press. 75 cents.
Miller, Esther. A Prophet of the Real. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.
Norris, Zoe A. The Quest of Polly Locke. J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co. $1.
Payne, G. H. A Great Part. Continental Pub. Co.
Rizal, José. Friars and Filipinos. Lewis, Scribner & Co.
Seen by the Spectator. (Reprinted from the Outlook.) The Outlook Co. $1.
Sibley, E. D. Stillman Gott. Boston: John S. Brooks & Co.
Smith, F. H. The Fortunes of Oliver Horn. Scribners. $1.50.
Taft, W. H. The Philippines. The Outlook Co. $1.00.
Waterloo, Stanley. The Story of a Strange Career. D. Appleton & Co. $1.20.
Wells, Carolyn. Folly in the Forest. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co. $1.
Winslow, Helen M. Literary Boston of To-day. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.20.

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Noyes's Organic Chemistry.

By Prof. WM. A. NOYES, Rose Polytechnic Institute. (*Oct.*)

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Echols's Differential and Integral Calculus.

By Prof. W. H. ECHOLS, Univ. of Virginia. (*Oct.*)

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